

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President has vetoed the Chinese Bill on grounds to which the "Hoodlums" of California can take no exception. He gives a brief summary of our negotiations with China since 1859, and cites *in extenso* the fifth and sixth articles of the Burlingame Treaty, making mutual provision for emigration, residence, and travel; acknowledges that the experience of the Californians as to the working of the Treaty may indicate the need of some revision of it, and that anyhow "the very grave discontent of the people of the Pacific States with the present working of Chinese immigration, and their still graver apprehensions therefrom in the future, deserve the most serious attention of the people of the whole country, and a solicitous interest on the part of Congress and the Executive." He points out, however, very tersely, that while it is undeniable that Congress has the power to abrogate a treaty, it is no less clear that the power of amending a treaty or making a new one rests exclusively with the President and Senate. This bill does not abrogate a treaty; it seeks to amend it by denouncing one provision in it, and its passage, therefore, he holds is beyond Congressional competence. Taking the other view, that a denunciation of this one provision is practically a denunciation of the whole treaty, he holds that there is no such urgency in the matter as to call for action that would suddenly put our citizens now in China in peril, and might entail an interruption of our commercial relations. He accordingly withholds his signature.

The Forty-fifth Congress expired on Tuesday, with the Army Appropriation Bill and the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill unpassed, and the President has accordingly convened the new Congress for the 18th instant. The deadlock was nominally over three issues—viz., in the Army Bill the prohibition of the presence of troops at polling places; and in the Legislative Bill the repeal of the Southern jurors' test-oath and of the provision for United States supervisors of elections. Really, however, the Republicans, in spite of their well-founded objection to new legislation being attached to appropriation bills, would have yielded the first two points if the Democrats had abandoned their traditional policy of opposing every safeguard to honest suffrage. The latter refused to budge, and rejected a proposition to continue for six months the appropriations of the present fiscal year for the Army and the three Government branches.

The Census Bill has been passed with amendments calling for statistics of the ownership of the public debt, and for the financial condition in minute detail of railroad, telegraph, and insurance companies. The Sugar Bill was withdrawn, the Geneva Award Bill shelved. The House so emphatically repudiated the Roach subsidy (159 to 89) that the Senate was obliged to recede. The vote on the Anti-Chinese Bill after the veto was 109 yeas to 95 nays, so that the veto was sustained. The Arrears of Pensions Appropriations Bill was threatened with an extension of the pension law of March 9, 1878 (relating to the soldiers of the War of 1812), to the soldiers and sailors of the Mexican War, but the thought of Jefferson Davis becoming a pensioner was too much for endurance.

Considering the state of the public business the debate in the Senate on Jefferson Davis was more than ridiculous, though, if one were to judge from the Washington letters of some of the newspapers, it afforded immense relief to the people of the United States. General Shields's proposal to aggravate the evils of the Arrears of Pensions Bill by making it cover soldiers of the Mexican War was simply an ebullition of "good fellowship," which ought to have been dismissed without debate. But Jefferson Davis had

to be excluded from its benefits; so there arose with great solemnity a discussion of his career, which sounded very much as if he had recently come before the public, and was a lusty young fellow who was likely to make trouble, and in the course of which Senator Blaine intimated that if Senator Thurman were not so old he would inflict corporal punishment on him. The language used about Davis was too mild to please William E. Chandler, who was in the gallery, so he sent down a taunting message to that effect to the elder Chandler, daring him to call Davis some fresh "names." The elder Chandler then rose and abused him savagely, declaring that "every man, woman, and child at the North believed him to be a double-dyed traitor." But, if so, what was the use of impeding business by talking about him?

The people who had their doors studded with big nails, and had their walls loopholed for musketry, when the Potter Committee was appointed, in expectation of a "revolution" which would desolate every school district in the country, as we were assured by one authority, will have been relieved before this reaches them by finding that it has all ended, as we assured them it would, in a huge campaign document. The majority of the committee has reported without any loss of life, and without producing the smallest effect on the stock market. The Report is written by the chairman, and differs from most of its kind in the exceeding sobriety of its tone.

The Report shows that in Florida the Canvassing Board was invested with purely clerical functions, and therefore exceeded its powers when it rejected from the returns a portion of the votes cast; and that it purposely withheld its announcement until the morning when the electors were to meet and vote, so that no time was allowed for effectual appeal to the Supreme Court, which afterwards ordered a re-canvass on behalf of the Democratic candidate for governor. Inasmuch as this wrong might be perpetrated in any State, the Committee recommend a law to meet a similar emergency. In the case of Louisiana, it shows what an anomalous power the Returning Board had over elections, and rehearses the steps which it took to justify its predetermined partisan action. These were, the persistent assumption that the color-line was the party-line in the State contests; a fraudulent census, producing 25,000 more black voters than white, and deriving nearly 25,000 voters from the 57,000 colored men, women, and children in New Orleans alone; a correspondingly fraudulent registration; and instructions to parish supervisors to "return the votes according to the census." It is further shown that the Board, having no authority to discard votes when the returns were unaccompanied by protests about intimidation, etc., and being aware that none such were made at the election of 1876, selected at pleasure Democratic parishes to throw out, and procured protests from them; that in order to make sure of pretexts they instructed the Republicans of East Feliciana to abstain from the polls, and thus afford *prima-facie* evidence of intimidation, and that supplementary protests of violence were obtained of Anderson and Weber, although there was no disturbance of the peace whatever; that evidence in regard to these protests was sought at the expense of the United States Government from ignorant negroes brought down from the interior, whose affidavits being written down for them, their marks were affixed and they sent home with fees, and that the mass of this testimony was so great that the Board could not possibly have considered or read it before their decision was reached. The Report also recites the well-known facts of the forged electoral certificates from Louisiana, replacing the defective original certificates. It concludes that Tilden was elected in Louisiana by a clear majority of seven thousand votes, which had passed the scrutiny of hostile Republican registrars and commissioners; that intimidation is disproved "by the undisputed fact that the vote was larger in proportion to the population than at any previous election ever held in the same State"; that the

Board were encouraged and sustained by the "visiting statesmen," who "pronounced the warmest encomiums" upon them, although bearing "characters notoriously bad," and doubtless promised them protection and reward, both of which have been accorded; and that the same propositions *mutatis mutandis* are applicable to Florida, where "the fraud was aggravated," and was denounced by all the departments of the Government. Mr. Tilden is exonerated from complicity with the cipher despatches. The Report includes a list of the persons connected both with the Florida and Louisiana elections who have been appointed to Federal offices.

The minority compliment Mr. Potter for his liberal rulings; assert that Tilden's denial of Pelton's corrupt negotiations "could not for a moment be entertained by candid men," and that there is no evidence that the members either of the South Carolina or Florida Returning Boards were corruptible. They say that "in Florida the face of the returns gave but 91 majority to Mr. Tilden on their most favorable construction"; that the mode of canvassing contended for by their Democratic colleagues would have given the Hayes electors 40 majority, while that imposed by the Supreme Court would have given them 200, and "purging the county returns of fraud," as the Democratic Attorney-General advised, 900 majority. They complain that they were outvoted on the question of inquiring into the alleged frauds at the ballot-box in Florida, to which assent was refused. Of Louisiana they have but little to say except in reference to the Sherman letter: they think the Committee ought to have been unanimous in exculpating Mr. Sherman. In short, the two reports afford little help to a judgment, since they avoid direct issues, and there is no proportion in the stress they lay on the same topics.

According to the majority report of the Teller Committee, which was laid before the Senate on Thursday, the elections last year in South Carolina were distinguished by the general use of tissue ballots, which extended to every county but one. In Louisiana the spirit of lawlessness took the form of murder, of which it is said there were between thirty and forty cases. Freedom of speech on political or social questions was suppressed by the Democrats, on the ground that the discussion of such subjects had an incendiary effect and tended to create ill-feeling and animosity between the races, and endangered the public peace. In spite of the pretence that the outrages committed by whites on the negroes were always caused by threats made by the latter, the witnesses were obliged to confess that the disposition of the colored people was peaceful and law-abiding, and that the whites had never had any reason to fear them. In several districts in both States the elections for Congressmen and for State and county officers were governed by violence and fraud. The laws of South Carolina and Louisiana are amply sufficient for the protection of citizens in their rights, but no effort was made to enforce them. The Committee have asked and obtained leave to sit during the recess and take further testimony.

Recent developments regarding two or three of our life insurance companies would seem to close the case against State supervision "as conducted in the State of New York," so that a disinterested jury would give a verdict without leaving their seats. In the case of the Globe Mutual (mutual as far as the President's family is concerned) the protectingegis of the Insurance Department seems to have been converted into a screen to hide the officers' irregularities from the outraged policy-holders. The company was examined last year by Deputy-Superintendent McCall, whose ability and integrity have never been questioned, and an elaborate report made to his superior officer in May, which was "pocketed" by the Superintendent, and has only now been brought to light on the peremptory demand of the Assembly. This report sets forth in detail the "building-loans" and other investments of the company, and Mr. McCall's comment upon this department of the business is, that "there has never been on exhibition, in the history of any trust institution of the State of New York, a record so tho-

roughly to be condemned as that presented in the real-estate loans of this company." The balance-sheet of the company, as adjusted by Mr. McCall, showed a deficit as respects policy-holders of \$378,739 19, or as respects stockholders of \$478,739 19, the capital stock being \$100,000.

There have been two singular college rows during the week, and both in institutions to which young men are attracted largely by their religious influences. At Trinity College, Hartford, the whole of the undergraduates, with one or two exceptions, rose in revolt against the college authorities and went through some "exercises" of a festive character in a hired room in the city, at which they recited poems which they had been forbidden to recite without previous submission to college censure. The result was that the unfortunate parents of the mutineers were summoned from their homes in dreadful weather by telegraph in order to quell the disorder, and were naturally indignant on discovering the nature of the crisis. Their intervention resulted in the passage of two buncombe resolutions—one by the students, acknowledging they had made a mistake, and the other by the Faculty, agreeing to overlook the matter. The second row actually occurred in an Episcopal theological seminary in which young men are trained for the ministry, near Poughkeepsie, in this State. Some of them went on a sleighing party and afterwards had a supper, at which several got drunk. Subsequently, another student, through whom the affair reached the knowledge of the Faculty, was put under a pump. Then there was a "free fight," in which chairs were used; then there was a secession of a large number because others were not expelled, in spite of the advice of the Faculty to forget the past and apply themselves to their studies with renewed vigor. When one considers that these gentlemen are actually preparing to be teachers of religion, and are presumably of tolerably mature age, the willingness of the Faculty to do another day's work on them strikes one as rather odd. It is difficult to believe that any body of professors, however able, could truly prepare them for orders within any reasonable period.

Archbishop Purcell's liabilities now appear to amount to \$6,000, 000, and the number of his unfortunate depositors to 11,000, of whom many have at last lost their temper and have begun suits against him. The affair has clearly passed beyond the control of his friends and even of the Church, which already finds it hard to make ends meet. To crown all, he appears to have kept no regular accounts, and to have but little knowledge of what he did with the money, though of course none of it was applied to his personal use—the celibacy of the clergy being a strong protection against abuses of this kind. The whole affair is a curious example of the working in an intensely commercial society of the reverence for authority, and especially ecclesiastical authority, which grew up in poor agricultural communities. Irish and German peasants, naturally enough, carry their scanty savings to the priest for safe keeping; the habit has been kept up in Ohio, and, as might have been expected, has resulted in a bankruptcy almost equal in size to Strousberg's.

The subscriptions to the United States 4 per cents. fell off during the week, and no further calls for the redemption of 5.20 6 per cents. have been issued. Sterling exchange has advanced to the specie-exporting point; at least, the nominal rates are fully up to that point, and the actual rates are very close to it. This rise was not unexpected, as the sales of 4 per cent. bonds in Europe have not been sufficient to counterbalance the amount of United States 5 20 bonds called home for redemption and railroad securities sent here because of the high prices now current at New York. Money continues abundant in the loan market notwithstanding the great number of securities taken back from Europe, and the Province of Quebec has brought out a loan for \$3,000,000 in New York rather than take it to London. This is the first foreign loan ever offered in New York, and it is remarkable that a borrowing nation should have so impressed the world with its "money power" that it is now asked to lend to its neighbors. The New York banks have suffered

a further reduction in their reserves on account of payments into the Treasury. As the Treasury has the power to put any part of its balance in national bank depositories the loss is not regarded as of the same importance as it would otherwise be. Silver has been steady during the week. The price in London has stood at 49½*d.* per oz.; the bullion value here for the 412½-grain dollar has ruled at \$0.8391 to \$0.8353.

The more is known about the late disaster to the British troops in Zulu-land the more unpleasant it appears. The causes of the war have been set forth in a memorandum by Sir Bartle Frere, who is the High Commissioner on the spot, in an elaborate memorandum, and, though the list includes some violations of British territory and other small outrages, the real one is the impossibility of permitting a savage chief to maintain a disciplined and well-armed force of 40,000 men on the borders of a peaceful agricultural and thinly-settled colony. In other words, it had become necessary to break up Cetewayo's army and bring him into a state of harmless subordination, and any excuses that offered themselves were seized on for this purpose. He was accordingly ordered to disarm and make his submission, on pain of military execution, and Sir Bartle and Lord Chelmsford, the general in command, chose their own time for the attack, and accordingly cannot plead surprise or unreadiness. Lord Chelmsford had 10,000 men under his orders—a force considered amply sufficient, for 450 Dutch farmers of the Transvaal have before now defeated 12,000 Zulus in a pitched battle. He however, divided his forces, advanced himself into the enemy's territory to reconnoitre at the head of one column, leaving another at his camp twelve miles away. It now appears that so defective was his scouting that an army of 20,000 men actually got in his rear, and overwhelmed the second column, and detached five thousand men to assail the small party of one hundred men left to guard the ford over the Tugela River, which constituted his sole line of retreat. But for the obstinate defence of the little garrison, which held its own for twelve hours, inflicting enormous loss on the enemy, he, too, would have been cut off and surrounded, and probably have shared the fate of his subordinate, Major Durnford. The Zulu tactics were, moreover, well known, and resemble those of our own Indians in the old days of forest fighting. They push round on both wings through the thick African bush, and when the circle is completed open fire, and at the last charge with long knives. There is nothing for it now but to finish Cetewayo's army, which, owing to the difficult nature of the country, is going to be a long and expensive job.

Troops are being hurried to the scene of action from all parts of the Empire, including India and the Mauritius, but the smallness of the force which can be spared throws curious light on the theatrical performance of threatening Russia in Turkey with the Sepoy army. The little war in Afghanistan with the barbarous levies, who have not yet mustered courage to fight a battle in the open, has tasked the resources of India both in men and money so severely that if Yakub Khan, who has now succeeded his deceased father, Shir Ali, continues the conflict, and Russia were to choose to play any more tricks in Turkey, it is not England who could bring her to reason. In fact, great fears begin to be felt among the Jingoists that Cetewayo may after all be the means of destroying the division of Bulgaria on which Lord Beaconsfield plumed himself as the happiest stroke of his policy. The hostility of the people of Eastern Rumelia to the separation continues to be intense, and there is no doubt of its being fomented by Russia. There is much likelihood, too, that the entrance of the Turks will be resisted forcibly, or will be followed by insurrectionary outbreaks, which will finally compel the armed intervention of the Powers, and the abandonment of the Jingo experiment. The news of the South African defeat, therefore, was terribly unwelcome to the Ministry, coming as it did at the opening of Parliament, and all the more because it crushes the Chancellor of the Exchequer's plan for distributing the expenses of the preparations for fighting Russia over three years, instead of paying them out of the taxes of the current year. He was warned at the time

by the Liberals that he could not in this way count upon the future, and the event has justified them.

Affairs in France have taken a turn for the worse, and the Waddington Ministry seems already tottering to its fall. Waddington himself is hardly the kind of man for his place. He is a cold, bluff manufacturer, whom Gambetta dislikes, partly instinctively and partly for cause, as he was supposed to have interfered to prevent Gambetta's meeting socially some of the royal personages who were in Paris at the Exposition, and President Grévy is said to have accepted him on Dufaure's resignation rather as a stop-gap than because he liked him. He was hardly in office before a fierce attack was made on the Paris police by a series of accusations in a Radical paper, the *Lanterne*, that compelled enquiry, which did not sustain all the charges, but revealed much that was very damaging, and furnished the extreme Left with plenty of ammunition. This forced M. Marcère, the Minister of the Interior, either to choose between surrendering all his subordinates to the Radicals, or standing by them, and the attack on him has been so fierce that he has had to resign. Close on this comes a charge against M. Léon Say, the Minister of Finance, of having used his official knowledge to speculate on the Bourse. He is an old clerk of the Rothschilds, and has been concerned with them in many financial operations, and is already very wealthy. The conversion of the five per cent. Rentes into three or four per cents would be easy, and has been long talked of, but is opposed by the Radicals because the bonds are largely held by the peasantry. But the talk of it and the reference of it to a Committee of the Assembly had lowered their price of late greatly, and while low the Rothschilds appear to have bought them heavily, it is alleged on the strength of the information furnished by M. Say to a syndicate of brokers that the Committee would report against the conversion. The resulting outcry is so fierce that at this writing it is supposed that he also will have to resign. It is hardly possible that after this the Ministry could hold together very long.

The Turks and Russians have at last concluded a definitive treaty of peace, which leaves the provisions of the Treaty of San Stefano standing except in so far as they have been modified by the Treaty of Berlin. The indemnity in money is fixed at \$160,000,000, but no time or mode of payment is fixed, and to this is to be added compensation to Russian subjects for losses suffered during the war, not to exceed \$5,000,000, and the cost of maintaining the prisoners of war. It will be seen that the indemnity, although the existing public debt takes precedence of it, gives Russia a potent means of annoyance. The evacuation of the territory began almost immediately after the ratification, and is probably by this time all but complete. The Montenegrins have come into possession, after long delay, of Spuz and Podgoritz, but the Porte still refuses on one pretext or another to negotiate with the Greeks on the basis prescribed by the Treaty of Berlin, and France has at last informed the Government at Athens that she will formally request the Porte to do so, and in case of refusal herself appeal to the Powers. A Frenchman, M. de Tocqueville, has a scheme on foot for a readjustment of the public debt on the basis of a new loan from the present creditors, but nobody believes it will succeed, although the Turks are of course willing to promise anything in order to get hold of the money.

The consideration of Prussia's steady support of Austria on the Eastern Question appears in the now publicly announced revision of the Treaty of Prague, by the fifth article of which Austria reserved to the inhabitants of Northern Schleswig-Holstein the right at a suitable time to declare by popular vote whether they would be annexed to Germany or restored to Denmark. Bismarck has, of course, carefully abstained from permitting the exercise of any such right, and he has now obtained from Austria, by a new Treaty, a formal abrogation of the provision, so that the understanding between the two empires appears to be perfect. It is rumored that Austria also secures by this German support or connivance for any moves she may hereafter find it necessary to take in the direction of Salonica.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FACTS ABOUT THE LATE CONGRESS.

THE difficulty, to which we have often called attention of late, of finding out, by observation of the proceedings in Congress, what is a Republican and what a Democrat—or, in other words, what is the nature of the line that divides the two great parties which every two years contend for the control of the Government—has not been by any means diminished by the course of the Congress which ended its existence on Tuesday. In fact, the history of its votes and debates makes it seem more and more likely that the next Presidential election will turn on the comparative personal merits or demerits of the candidates. For many years after the foundation of the Government—indeed, down to the outbreak of the war—parties were divided, roughly, it is true, but still with sufficient distinctness to enable one to predict the ground they would take on most Federal questions, by their manner of interpreting the Constitution, whether loosely or strictly. If either Democrats or Republicans of to-day inherited the traditions of their political ancestors, we should be able to say with certainty what course either party would pursue with regard to the paper-money question, the silver question, the pension question, the Chinese question, and the army question, or any other question which has been prominently before the public during the last two years. As a matter of fact, nothing in the history of parties would have foreshadowed any important vote of the late Congress.

It found resumption on a certain day provided for by its predecessor, but it had no sooner met than desperate attempts to repeal the Act were made, which were supported by large bodies of both Republicans and Democrats, the only difference being that the Democrats contributed the larger contingent to the attack, and the credit of defeating it was in like manner shared by both. Efforts to revive the income tax and revise the tariff were supported and defeated, in like manner, by votes drawn from both sides indiscriminately, with little or no regard to party platforms. The Silver Bill was passed by an overwhelming majority of both parties, though its avowed object—the inflation of the currency and the cheating of the public creditor—was one against which the Republicans were solemnly pledged. The Bankrupt Law was repealed also by an indiscriminate vote. The Electoral Count Bill, introduced by Mr. Edmunds, was passed in the Senate by the aid of Democratic votes, but in the House neither side has deigned to pay much attention to it, and the time for calm legislation on the subject may be said now to have all but passed by. Both sides profess to be in favor of strict economy, but both joined in passing by overwhelming majorities the Arrears of Pensions Bill, the Democrats indifferent to the fact that it takes \$27,000,000 out of the Treasury, and the Republicans to the fact that it may give the inflationists a weapon to use against the permanence of resumption. The payment of the Fisheries Award was opposed by Republicans and supported by Democrats without any reference, apparently, to party traditions or associations. Strangest of all, the Chinese Bill, which seemed to be more distinctly than any measure which has come before Congress in recent times hostile to the fundamental principles of the Republicans, was passed by a powerful combination of both parties, the leader in its support being the noisiest Republican agitator now to be found in public life. It is not surprising, in view of all these things, that neither party should have steadily supported or opposed the Administration. It has been helped and hindered by both indiscriminately, it would be hard to say with what view or by what rule. Its bitterest assailants have sometimes been Republicans who were moving heaven and earth to elect Mr. Hayes in 1876, as a person who would go far to regenerate American society, and its warmest supporters have sometimes been Democrats who have denounced it as the product of the blackest fraud of "this or any other age."

All this promises to make the task of the conscientious or independent voter a very troublesome one in 1880. Looseness of opinion on all questions except the condition of the South—or, in other

words, the only great question of the day which seems beyond the reach of specific legislation—has been deliberately fostered on the Republican side during the whole session, and the Democrats have on their part avoided any attempt to deal with Southern troubles beyond removing any hindrances which Republican legislation may have placed in the way of white supremacy. There has not been on either side the sign of an honest attempt to reach a solid and lasting solution of a problem which is fast becoming the reproach of American politics. Nearly everything that has been said or done with this air, or apparent design, has been really a device for entrapping the enemy into some damaging vote or admission.

The plain truth is that there is no honesty in accepting, as most Democrats profess to do, negro suffrage at the South as a lawful fact, and then professing to see no necessity for any extraordinary police measures for its protection. Everybody knows that negroes have and will have extraordinary difficulty in exercising their legal right, and that the State governments are not likely to protect them in it efficiently, and that it is a piece of self-stultification for Congress to repudiate all responsibility in the matter, at least so far as the enforcement of order at the polls at Federal elections goes. Any Democrat who denies all this ought in decency to advocate the disfranchisement of the negro. The objections made to the use of soldiers at the polls may be well founded, though as long as there is no other Federal police we do not think they are. But what is the objection to supervisors of election chosen from both parties? Where is the danger to popular liberty or State rights in this? If, also, the great difficulty of the Southern question lies, as we believe it does, in the fact that the Federal Government always appears on the scene, not as a peacemaker or arbiter but as a fierce partisan, eager for the triumph of one party, why do we see no Democratic proposal looking to the abatement of this evil, except one which is based on the utterly false assumption that there is no more need now for Federal interference at all than there was before the war? Those who are laboring for the repeal of what they consider the unconstitutional legislation framed by the Republican party during and since the war, cannot face the country without making some other provision for the new state of things introduced by the war, the most important feature of which is the appearance of a body of voters without sufficient moral and physical force for their own protection. If the Democrats suppose that the country will be satisfied without some attempt on their part to deal with this problem, they make a huge mistake. They will be pursued from election to election with stories of fraud and outrage, which will prevent their ever obtaining a sure hold on power, because it will keep the humane feeling of the North, which is after all the most permanent force in American politics, constantly arrayed against them.

Of civil-service reform the Republicans, after having used it in their platform to elect their candidate, have shown themselves bitter and determined enemies, and there is something odd in the fact that the candidate himself, who was elected as its champion, has managed within two years to make the thing and its advocates more or less ridiculous. He has not only recommended no legislation in aid of it, but has exemplified most of the evils of the old system in his practice.

One thing must be said of the late Congress in the way of praise, and it will cover a good many sins. It has been answerable for few or no jobs, or votes of public money in aid of private ventures. Its worst acts have had at least a flavor of public spirit. The lobby has never since the war been less powerful or less successful, or Washington society and municipal government freer from the odor of corruption. For this, too, the President and Cabinet are entitled to a large share of praise, and it ought to be heartily given. No matter what may be said of them, it cannot be said that they have, directly or indirectly, supported or countenanced any disreputable scheme, or that any doubtful person has been able to boast their friendship or connivance in getting money out of the Federal or city treasury.

THE PROTECTIONIST REVIVAL IN EUROPE.

THE demand for protection for native industry in France and Germany, and even England, in all of which the doctrines of free-trade were supposed to have secured a firm footing during the last fifteen years, is interesting for the light it throws on the reasons which make protection popular in the strict sense of the term. That protection is popular there is no sort of doubt. In every country in which the opinion of the masses exerts a strong influence on fiscal legislation—that is, in which this legislation is not left in the hands of the economical experts—it constantly tends to become protectionist. The exception to this rule furnished by England is only apparent, because there the battle between free-trade and protection was fought over the food question, and the protectionist presented himself in the character which he has never assumed anywhere else—of a person interested in making the poor man's bread dear. The illustration which this afforded enabled Cobden and Bright and their friends to obtain a hearing and acceptance for the free-trade argument which probably could not have been secured in any other way, and which made the overthrow of the high duties on all other commodities as well as on grain a comparatively easy matter. Such success as free-trade has secured on the Continent was the result, in part, of the success of the English experiment, and in part of the great improvement in international communication. The manufacturing and commercial prosperity of England increased in a marvellous ratio after 1850, and it impressed the Continental imagination sufficiently to produce a leaning towards free-trade among the politicians and in the press, which resulted not in any general or fundamental revision of the tariffs but in the making of a number of treaties of commerce, providing for what is called the system of "reciprocity"; or, in other words, the admission of certain specified products at low rates of duty in return for the admission at low rates of certain other specified products. As regards any nations with which these treaties did not exist the old high tariffs remained in operation. The most liberal of these treaties was that which was concluded with England by the Emperor Napoleon through the negotiations of M. Chevalier and Mr. Cobden. The result, as shown in the growth of imports and exports and of national savings, has been something marvellous in France also. In fact, no higher evidence of the fiscal wisdom of the Emperor's policy could be offered than the ease with which the French people bore eleven years later the huge burdens imposed on them by the German war. Besides the stimulus to unfettered commercial intercourse given by these examples, the great growth of travel and of means of quick transportation within twenty years has, by bringing foreign markets near, given them an attractiveness which, in the days before steam, they could not have had, and has helped to break down the idea on which the whole protective doctrine may be said to rest, that trading across political lines is likely to be more hurtful (or less profitable) than trading within them.

Nevertheless, in spite of all this apparently successful working of the free-trade theory, it has at this moment fallen into discredit, not only on the Continent but in England, where it was first preached, and where, for the last thirty years, it has almost held the place of a new gospel. In Germany and France there is an outcry against it, and a marked disposition to abandon the treaties of commerce and enforce the rule of reciprocity through the tariff. This tendency shows itself, too, at a moment when the zeal for improved means of intercourse—for more railroads, more tunnels, and swifter steamers—is stronger than ever before. Every country in which this protectionist revival has appeared is suffering from great commercial depression, but this depression is almost the only thing they all have in common. Each one of them has reached the commercial depression through a totally different path. Germany has reached it after a prodigious and sudden addition to her pecuniary wealth following on a short and successful war; France, through a destructive and unsuccessful war, and a political revolution; Italy, through a long period of political turmoil and grinding taxation; and England, after

ten years of prodigious commercial activity and prosperity. In fact, it would be difficult to mention a single circumstance of importance in the economical antecedents of these countries which any two of them have in common. They have had different tariffs, different social and political organizations, different recent political history, different systems of taxation, different amounts of taxation, different monetary and banking systems. The only thing they have in common now is the prevalence of commercial distress. Nevertheless, the remedy called for in all, by those who think the Government can apply a remedy, is the same—namely, a return to protection or an increase of protection.

The United States has gone through five years of depression also after twelve years' experience of a highly protective tariff, the only difference between our condition and that of European countries being that our troubles began a year or two sooner. They are not yet by any means at an end, though the end is apparently near at hand. The number of failures last year was greater than ever, but our exportations of breadstuffs and cattle, and cheese and butter, having been recently very great, people are disposed to forget totally the panic and its consequences, and have begun to point to the fact that we have any trade at all as a signal vindication of the protectionist policy pursued since the war, and as good reason for asking whether we should not be the better of a little more protection.

This general cry of all sorts of patients for the one medicine explains why it is that protection is popular in all popularly governed communities. It is emphatically the remedy of "plain people," who do not carry their enquiries very far or remember very long. To every man who earns his bread in any trade or calling the great difficulty of his life is to find a market for his wares, and two-thirds of his mental force is expended first on finding it, and then on keeping other people in the same pursuit from sharing it with him. In fact, if fortune places it in his power to create a monopoly for himself, there is not one in a thousand who will refuse to do it. No amount of argument will persuade a grocer that it would be well to open two more grocery stores in the same street, or a stage-owner that there ought to be another line on his route. When times get bad with a dealer, no matter from what cause, the form in which the badness presents itself to him is in the shape of falling prices, or excessive supply of his own commodity. The remedy is, therefore, suggested by the disease, and it consists in getting down the supply by shutting out from the markets some of the rival producers. He cannot resort to this remedy in these days as against his own countrymen, but it remains in his head as a good thing to use against those who have no legal or moral claims on his forbearance, and when the opportunity offers itself, he turns the weapon of exclusion unhesitatingly against foreigners. No simpler mode of recovery, or one needing less time for its operation, occurs to him, and the fact that even in England it should have secured a powerful hold on the popular mind in the very first protracted crisis since the policy of free-trade was resorted to, shows what a *natural* mode of recovery it really is.

THE BIRMINGHAM CAUCUS.

BIRMINGHAM, February 9, 1879.

A VERY common subject of political discussion in England has of late been what is called the "Birmingham Caucus"—an institution the chief defender and expounder, if not the actual founder, of which is Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, late mayor and now member of Parliament for Birmingham. This political organization, which was intended to consolidate Liberalism in Birmingham and ensure its triumph at the general as well as the local elections, is not properly a "caucus," but is based on the same principles which govern the ward committees and primary elections in America. The selection of candidates for election in English towns and boroughs had previously been left entirely, or almost entirely, to local self-appointed committees consisting chiefly of men who had subscribed to the political cause, or in the hands of the leading political clubs in London, such as the Reform and the Carlton. An institution like that which is now established at Birmingham, with its primary and secondary elections, naturally causes a great deal of dissatisfaction on the

part of many Liberals as well as Conservatives. Mr. Gladstone has lately become known as the defender of the organization, on the ground that, in his opinion, it seems to be the only method of sufficiently consolidating the Liberal party, of preventing "splits" at elections, and of preventing the return of a Conservative candidate who is really in a minority. Lord Hartington, in his Liverpool speech, has taken the same view. Others, such as Mr. W. E. Forster, and notably Sir W. Harcourt, are as strongly opposed to the "caucus" system, on the ground of its destroying independence of thought, of its crushing out divergencies in Liberal opinions, of its turning members of Parliament into mere mouthpieces of their constituencies, and lest it may, in the course of time, be converted into a mere "machine" and fall into the hands of men who will use it simply for their own private ends. The chief objections to the organization were fully stated by Mr. E. D. J. Wilson in an article in the *Nineteenth Century* for October, 1878, which was answered by Mr. Chamberlain in the *Fortnightly Review* for November. Since then there has been considerable discussion in the daily and weekly press; and the subject is becoming even more prominent from the refusal of Mr. Forster, the present member for Bradford, to submit his claims at the next general election to what is called the "Three Hundred" of that borough, on the understanding, of course, that should they choose to reject him he would be bound in honor not to present himself to the constituency. Since then a meeting of what may be called a competitive examination of candidates has been held, by a similarly constituted body, in the borough of Southwark. Over one hundred towns and boroughs in England have now adopted the Birmingham scheme, known in various places as the "Two Hundred," the "Four Hundred," and the "Five Hundred," and, about a year ago, they formed themselves into the "National Federation of Liberal Associations" (of which Mr. Chamberlain is the president), for the purpose of organizing the Liberal party throughout the country, and naturally, through this organization, of influencing parliamentary representation and parliamentary members.

It may be interesting, therefore, to consider exactly how the Liberal Association, or the "Six Hundred," of Birmingham, is constituted. Now that the institution is in running order, the general method of procedure is as follows: Once a year the Liberal Association summons, in each of the sixteen wards, a meeting of the Liberals of that ward. Every person calling or choosing to consider himself a Liberal—no matter whether he is a member of any one of the committees, or whether or not he pays the minimum contribution of a shilling a year—is allowed to attend. This meeting elects large ward committees of indeterminate number, with a chairman and secretary. It also elects five members of the Executive Committee, two of whom must be chairman and secretary of their ward, all five becoming members of the General Committee. It then elects thirty other members of the General Committee. These would make an executive committee for the whole of Birmingham of eighty members, and a general committee of 560. An attempt, however, is made to combine local representation, in its strict sense, with the representation by men of character and influence, not resident in the district, as heretofore practised in England. For this purpose the executive committee is empowered to select, at its discretion, thirty additional members from the whole of Birmingham, who also form part of the General Committee. Besides these they elect a president, vice-president, treasurer, and secretary, who originally may not have been members of the committee, but who, *ex officio*, become so. In this manner the Executive Committee is increased to 114 members, and the General Committee to 594. The sixteen ward committees number altogether about two thousand men. In addition to the four officers the Executive Committee choose a small Management Sub-committee of seven; and this Sub-committee, it is evident, must in the end rule the whole of the General Committee, although, in extreme cases, its proposals may be set aside. However, when the machine is in full working order, the decisions of the General Committee, and the lists of candidates, will doubtless be prepared by this Sub-committee, and arrangements will be made by the leaders that their decisions shall be always carried into effect. The choice of parliamentary candidates for the borough belongs absolutely to the General Committee. This committee also nominates the candidates for the School Board. Candidates for the municipal offices are selected in each ward by the ward committee, or perhaps really by this Sub-committee of Management; and the General Committee, in every case, undertakes to approve of and aid in carrying out the decisions of the ward committees. It is a rule of the Association to vote for no candidate who has not been proposed or approved by the General Committee; and, also, that every candidate who has submitted his claims for nomination to the commit-

tee is in honor bound not to stand if rejected by them. The organization of Liberal committees in other towns is, in all important respects, similar to that of Birmingham.

Now, this organization differs in one very important respect from similar American party combinations, namely, that the members of the committees are elected at fixed times to serve for the whole year. One of the characteristics of the American plan which has caused most harm is that fresh conventions are called for the selection of candidates at each election, and owing to a multiplicity of elections there is also a multiplicity of conventions. Unless, therefore, a man takes a very deep interest in politics, either on the grounds of general good or personal benefit, he is apt to neglect attending the primary meetings. Such conventions accordingly fall far more easily than they would be likely to do with the Birmingham system under the control of a knot of wire-pullers and professional politicians, who select their own delegates for the conventions, and thus present to the public as candidates for office (one of whom must practically be selected) either mere politicians who are seeking office for their own ends, or harmless mediocrities. Of course such a state of things may be conceived as possible under the Birmingham plan; but owing to the general fixed tenure of public offices, and there being no spoils to reward partisans, and owing also to what may be called the greater political conscientiousness which exists in England, such a probability is unlikely to occur, at all events for a long time to come. It is not meant to assert that even now there is no wire-pulling and "packing" of meetings in Birmingham; and it would be difficult to prove that even with all this representative system of primary elections affairs are not really in the hands of half-a-dozen leading men in Birmingham, of whom Mr. Chamberlain is *facile princeps*. So far, however, the efforts of the Liberals have tended towards the public good, and not to their own personal profit or advantage, except in the way of office-holding.

As a party organization the Birmingham Liberal Association has had a great success. The most respectable men of the Liberal party are glad to be members of its committees and take an active part in its proceedings. The discipline to which it has succeeded in attaining among the rank and file of the party is splendid. For several years it has returned an overwhelming number of members to the Town Council, and at the last election carried every man, so that the Town Council is now exclusively Liberal, although one-third of the population of the town is Conservative. For the return of members to the School Board there is a cumulative vote. This School Board consists of fifteen members, and each elector is allowed fifteen votes to distribute as he pleases. By deciding that each Liberal elector shall give five votes for three candidates in each ward the Liberals have succeeded in electing eight members out of a total of fifteen, thus giving them a majority. The Board of Guardians is almost exclusively constituted of Liberals. At the last election for members of Parliament the Association determined to show its power thoroughly, and, what is unusual in England, rejected a sitting member who had given no cause of offence, and nominated and elected a new one, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. There are three members for the borough, and each elector is allowed two votes, which are not cumulative.

At the same time the effect of the Liberal Association, as has just been seen, has been to introduce national party politics into municipal affairs, a proceeding which is very much commented upon in England, and to which many persons of all shades of opinion—Liberals as well as Conservatives—object. It thus may happen that owing to the excitement attending national politics at the time of the elections of the General Committee—when, *e. g.*, the burning questions as to whether England should support Turkey, or whether the Afghan war is right, are being debated—little more than a bare majority of the Liberals may practically decide who shall fill the municipal offices; that is, that a little more than one-third of the population may rule the town. Of course, every political organization must have its defects, and the present tendency of opinion in England is towards organization. As to its results in Birmingham, it may be mentioned that its School Board has carried out the education laws as liberally as any interpretation would admit of, and has increased the number of pupils at elementary schools from about fifteen thousand, in 1870, to over forty thousand in 1876. This, however, was partly due to the enactments of the law itself. Besides the ordinary business of the town the municipal government has entered on three great transactions which have vastly increased its debt, and which, of late, have been greatly dwelt upon by the Conservative party as arguments against the Liberal party itself, and also against the introduction of national politics into municipal affairs. In 1875, on the proposition of Mr. Chamberlain, then mayor, the corporation resolved to purchase the gas-works. The

debt incurred by this undertaking has been about \$10,000,000. The improvement, however, has been very great, through the saving effected by single instead of double management (for there used to be two companies), and by taking up all the extra mains. The area lighted by gas has also been greatly increased, as likewise the number of consumers. The net profit, after paying all expenses and interest for the year 1878, is about \$270,000. Of this amount \$100,000 has been paid over to the funds of the town towards general expenses, and the remainder set apart for a reserve fund and a sinking fund, with the intention of paying off the debt sooner than the term fixed by act of Parliament. The price of gas has also been reduced in Birmingham to 2s. 7d. (\$0 57) per thousand cubic feet, and is now cheaper than in any other town of England, excepting two—one being Plymouth, where the gas is inferior in quality, and the other Walsall, an outlying district of Birmingham, which had the advantage of purchasing the works at a reduced value from the Birmingham corporation. In the same year (1875) the Corporation took the works of the Birmingham Water-works Company at a cost to the town of £1,400,000 (\$7,000,000). The results have been a small annual profit to the town, the use of pure water by the poorer population of the town, and the closing of the old wells, which were infected by sewage matter, thus tending to diminish the death-rate. Besides this, the town of Birmingham was the first to avail itself of the Artisans' Dwellings Improvement Act, by which the corporation has bought, through compulsory sales, a tract of land of about ninety-three acres through the poorest and most thickly-settled part of the town, in which it proposes to lay out new streets and build new houses. It is estimated that the net cost to the town in carrying out this work will be about £500,000 (\$2,500,000), although the actual cost, until the lands can be resold, will be far greater. Up to the present time the corporation have only completed a small section of one new street, and have not yet erected any dwellings for the occupancy of artisans.

In spite of its Liberalism, Birmingham is in some respects conservative, and not always awake to new ideas. The fire department is badly managed under the control of the police. Notwithstanding the many new large buildings, some people have thought that fires could not occur, and it was with great difficulty that the corporation was persuaded to purchase one steam fire-engine, which is, however, not allowed to go out until specially sent for. Several large fires recently, especially the burning of the Library, are beginning to open people's eyes.

The taxation for the present year for municipal purposes, including the poor-rate, will be 4½ shillings in a pound on ratable property of £1,454,328—i.e., 21½ cents in a dollar. The ratable property is chiefly the income of inhabited houses, and the rates, as elsewhere in England, are paid by the occupier, the law thus protecting the landlords; when their houses are not rented they pay no tax.

Correspondence.

THE SYRACUSE CONFERENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have alluded to my part in the conference of the 14th inst. at Syracuse, in reference to the Oneida Community, will you allow me the use of your types to say that no report of my remarks, even tolerably correct, has appeared in print? I have not cared to follow up the pretended reports in other papers, but the *Nation* is usually so careful, and so free from recklessness in its statements, that I cannot refrain from asking the favor of a correction in its columns.

The word "concupiscence," which the *Nation* also claims was used in proposed amendments to the statutes of the State, was not heard from beginning to end of the proceedings. Might not the well known good sense of the *Nation* have saved it from reiterating a puerility so manifestly the blunder of a misinformed reporter?

Very truly,

JOHN W. MEARS.

CLINTON, N. Y., February 24, 1879.

[We prefaced our remarks on the proceedings with the reservation, "if the brief report of the New York *Times* be correct." From the prominence given it by the editor, we inferred that it had reached him from a trustworthy source, and we may add that the paper generally avoids sensationalism in reporting events at the North. We are sorry, of course, to have even innocently ascribed to any gentleman, lay or professional, the strange plan of dealing with "concupiscence" which Mr. Mears repudiates.—ED. NATION.]

L'ART'S TREATMENT OF MR. VEDDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of January 16 is a note relative to the unpleasantness between *L'Art* and Mr. Vedder, in reference to which I would like to say a word, if not too late, the more as I strongly suspect from internal evidence that the laudatory critique of Mr. Vedder's work in the *Nation* was the cause of the most unjust and critically discreditable retaliatory notice in *L'Art*.

In art discussions one must be catholic and not too self-asserting. What differences of opinion may exist between critics are not subjects of close argument, but loosely coherent system, which admits agreement in discord; but the animus of the attack on Mr. Vedder is betrayed by a gross misstatement in matter of fact. The critic asserts that whatever of certain good qualities may be found in the reproduction in the pages of *L'Art* are due to the engraver, not to the original. As the writer of the *Nation's* notice of Vedder's picture, and knowing the picture thoroughly, I beg to be allowed to qualify the statement of *L'Art* as without the slightest justification in fact. I do not trust merely to memory, for I compared the illustration with a photograph from the original picture, and though the former is certainly a creditable and generally spirited reproduction of the design, it fails precisely to render the qualities of delicacy and tenderness in the "Marsyas" which the critic of *L'Art* credits it with supplying.

I am not a personal friend of Mr. Vedder, whom I have only seen once in my life, many years ago; but the case seemed to me such a gross violation of the decencies of criticism that I at once got a copy of the photograph from the "Marsyas" and sent it to the "gérant responsable" of *L'Art*, calling his attention to the violation of the conditions of honest criticism, and asking him to compare it with the illustration and judge. Of course nothing ever came of it, but he should be warned that such criticism will only destroy the influence of his journal. The whole article in which the attack on Vedder appears is full of "appreciations" so evidently shaped by something beside fair critical judgment that I am inclined to say that the writer must fall on one horn of a dilemma, either of which should disqualify him as a critic.

Yours truly,

W. J. S.

FLORENCE, ITALY, Feb. 13, 1879.

THE QUESTION OF SCHOLARSHIPS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to touch very briefly a few of the points discussed in the interesting letter of "T. W. H." on "open" scholarships, published in your last issue?

1. The practice of taking account of character, scholarship, and need in giving money aid to students under the various forms of "beneficiary" money, "exhibitions," loans, scholarships, and fellowships has been uniform and unbroken at Harvard for so many generations that the governing boards would probably not feel warranted in offering the income of any of the existing endowments as prize-money for competitions in scholarship alone. The nature of the endowments, not the action of the University authorities, has fixed this practice. Unless the founder of a scholarship expressly declared his wish that his benefaction should be accessible to persons who have no need of pecuniary aid in obtaining a liberal education—and no founder has ever done this—long-established usage would establish the strongest possible presumption that need was intended to be one of the grounds of selection. With regard to the terms on which the scholarships already founded were established, "T. W. H." has fallen into several errors, partly because he relied on the very brief statements of the annual Catalogue—statements which, though true as far as they go, are incomplete—and partly because on a few points he has not correctly apprehended the facts there stated.

2. The University would doubtless accept new endowments for money prizes to be awarded on competitions in scholarship, should such be offered them; but as it has needs which are much more urgent—such as funds for professors' salaries, for retiring pensions, and for the maintenance of collections and buildings—the government of the University, if consulted by proposing benefactors, would probably prefer to mention the more pressing wants.

3. In describing the working of the English "open" scholarship system "T. W. H." remarks: "As a matter of fact, all agree that nineteen-twentieths of these prizes naturally fall to those who are stimulated by necessity." My own observation and reading lead me to think that this very broad statement cannot be substantiated. Indeed, it is the common

opinion that the great majority of the holders of Oxford and Cambridge scholarships are persons who are in no need of aid in obtaining their education. I can call no better witness on this point than Dr. Mark Pattison, the Rector of Lincoln College. "In his 'Suggestions on Academic Organization' (pp. 58 and 59), he says, after mentioning the creation of a large number of open scholarships about twenty-five years ago:

"Open scholarships have been multiplied on all sides with eager rivalry. The market is glutted. . . . Yet university education is not cheapened. . . . Well-to-do parents continue to make their sons the usual allowance, and the scholar treats his £80 a year as so much pocket-money, to be spent in procuring himself extra luxuries. . . . The question is not, Has the multiplication of scholarships drawn more men to Oxford? but, Has it brought the university within the reach of a class socially below the class who frequented it before? I think the answer must be that it has *not*. The class which enjoys the scholarships and exhibitions now is the very same class which monopolized them under the old system of close foundations."

The "open" scholarship system, which made these valuable prizes the subjects of competition, was a great improvement on the former system, under which they were obtainable by interest or favor; but it has not made Oxford and Cambridge any less than before places of education for the rich and well-to-do alone. As Dr. Pattison puts it, "The open-scholarship fund, then, as now dispensed, does not act as an instrument of university extension. It acts as prize money. Scholarships are educational prizes." Of course, this prize-money is won by the young men who have been trained at the best schools and have secured the best private tutors. These are privileges and helps which cannot be obtained by the poor.

4. My opinion is clear that no pity and no public money should be wasted on young men who feel it to be a humiliation to accept a scholarship at Harvard College. Such a feeling argues a deplorable lack of sense and manliness, and I believe it to be very rare among possible candidates for scholarships in this institution.

5. It should not be forgotten that it is a debatable question whether it be expedient to set money before young men as a suitable reward for scholarship. The Germans repudiate this idea with hearty aversion. The results of the scholarship and fellowship system in England itself are but doubtful.

6. The prize for which the candidates for the Harvard scholarships compete, under the existing system, is the chance of procuring a liberal education, or, at least, the chance of procuring that great advantage without incurring debt. The competition is keen, and success brings with it a great boon. The system is in the highest degree democratic; because it gives poor young men of capacity honorable means of obtaining a college education, and because it is a constant protest against the unworthy idea that poverty implies inferiority.

Your obedient servant,

CHARLES W. ELIOT.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call the attention of "T. W. H." to the following from the *Athenæum* of December 28, 1878, as showing the present working of the English system of scholarships. It is taken from that paper's report of the conference of head-masters held the week before at Harrow:

"Dr. Jex-Blake's resolution regarding the value, length of tenure, and other details of open scholarships at the University next came on for discussion. The subject calls for no remark except so far as Mr. Percival's scheme appeared to meet most of the evils complained of. Experience has shown that, as a rule, the endowments originally left for the assistance of the needy who desire to obtain a university education are going more and more to those who are not needy and who are spending the sums, derived from such endowments in mere luxury and amusements: in fact, that the scholarship money is, in an increasing number of cases, doing more harm than good. Mr. Percival's scheme advocates a retrograde policy, viz., the fixing the maximum annual value of scholarships at £50, £40, or even £30, and leaving the colleges to deal with a large exhibition fund, which they shall dispense in the augmentation of scholarships where the winners of such scholarships are proved to require substantial assistance."

This is enough to disprove the fact in which "all agree, that nineteenth-twentieths of these prizes naturally fall to those who are stimulated by necessity."

There is only one possible way to help needy students, and when the student is morbidly sensitive and jealous he must have his pride hurt. The English system of scholarships, according to those best acquainted with it, does not help the needy; our system does, but brings, in one case out

of a hundred, "chagrin amounting to bitterness"; while Mr. Percival's scheme is tainted with all the evil of the American system, and the increased amount of scholarship called forth would be small.

There are other things in the letter of "T. W. H." to which I wish I might refer; but I have time only for what he writes in regard to the prizes of life being open to all, in opposition to scholarships which are open only to the poor. It may be true that the prizes of life are open to all, but no man can become a competitor with hope of success unless he possesses the necessary qualifications. Wealth, strength, learning, a powerful mind, are all forms of "caste distinctions"; and of these some particular one must belong to a man before he can even hope to obtain the prize he strives for. We have an illustration of this need of a definite qualification in the small number of men of ability and integrity who succeed in public life; such men cannot afford time to acquire what is now necessary; therefore, when they do try for some prize in politics they are beaten. Now, the college with its scholarships is the only place where these "caste distinctions," these accidents of birth, are reduced to the lowest amount. Only one thing is required of him who would gain the prize—that he be willing to work. And, therefore, the converting of these scholarships, which have been instruments in breaking down caste distinctions, into prizes for learning would be a great evil. There are enough incentives for men to rival each other: can we spare one which tends to make them equal? R.

GLOUCESTER, March, 1879.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am one of those who, like "T. W. H.," were astonished that President Eliot did not deal with the only point in the scholarship question which has been much discussed—the comparative advantages of rank and need, or rank alone, as the criteria of assignment. "T. W. H." writes so strongly in favor of scholarships as prizes simply, and with so many plausible arguments, that it is worth while to ask whether they are all justified by the real circumstances of the case, and whether the moral considerations involved are of the consequence that appears to him. Being a graduate of a recent class at Harvard, I feel that I have seen from the inside the workings of a system of which your correspondent can only judge by hearsay. The objection made most prominent, in his letter, to the present system of administering scholarships at Harvard and other colleges is that the scholarship is a "visible badge of poverty," as much a dishonor as an honor, by reason of being sued for *in forma pauperis*, and that the receipt of one under these circumstances is to be concealed as a hindrance to social standing. Were it a fact that the system of scholarships in vogue at Harvard produced the pitiable results theoretically calculated to flow from it, there would be much more to be said for its abolition. But it must be said that the public degradation of receiving a scholarship—for such it appears to "T. W. H."—is scarcely to be considered when the assignment is a matter between the applicant and two or three professors. Outside of them, in general, nobody need know, and, in fact, nobody does know, who has a scholarship. Within my own class of about 175 there must have been from thirty to forty different members who in one year or another received a scholarship, and yet, on going over the list, I cannot put my hand on more than seven or eight whom I knew to have held one, although I had more and better opportunities for knowing than most. Of course there are a score of others of whom it would have been argued thus: A. B. is poor or of limited means; A. B. ran well; *ergo*, A. B. has a scholarship. But the fact that A. B. is poor is the only known fact which could possibly discredit him socially. The scholarship is a mere incident whose existence is only inferential; and that its existence, unknown, could degrade a man socially as "a visible badge of poverty," is a paradox needing no refutation. If it be said that the fact that the recipients of this sort of aid do not publish it to the world is proof that they are ashamed to have it known, it is answered that a scholarship is, to a certain extent, an honor that, like a creditable mark on an examination or a part at Commencement, they do not care to proclaim upon the housetop. It must be confessed, however, that while most men are not ashamed of their poverty, a good many do not care to have it publicly referred to, and for this reason the names of the holders of scholarships are not printed in the college papers. It follows, then, that the private assignment of scholarships hitherto in vogue at Harvard accomplishes the good designated, in most cases, by their founders—the aid of young men whose means are limited—and at the same time does not make them a visible badge of poverty.

The stumbling-block with those who urge a change in the present sys-

tem is the notion that the first and chief idea of a scholarship is an honor, whereas it is a regulated benefaction. If the benevolent individuals who have endowed scholarships in New England and elsewhere could be asked their purpose in so doing, the large majority would, no doubt, answer that they wished to help the coming generations of youth to a liberal education, and, in order that their money might not be misapplied, they expected it would be given only to those who are worth helping—i.e., those whose intellectual promise is such as to make it worth while to ensure its results by a thorough and extended education. They would say that their idea—the American idea—of a scholarship, was not that of an honor to those who need assistance but an aid to those of honorable deserts. For colleges to act on any other theory than this is to cut off most of their hopes of further endowments of this character.

If a scholarship must be looked on as purely and simply an honor, to be sought by those who will value it as such, and have no especial interest in the form in which it comes—money—then it becomes an important question whether it is wise to hold out to the student with fair ability and plenty of means the inducement of from one to three hundred dollars to expend a year more than he needs. Would not some other form be preferable? And here we are answered by President Eliot, who shows that there are numerous ways in which honors can come to the well-to-do student who needs no pecuniary help. Those who will not work for honorable position on the rank-list, for a commencement part, for a Bowdoin prize dissertation, for a "detur," for "second year" and "final honors," so called, for admission into the Phi Beta Kappa, for a place in those college societies where ability has an equal chance with every other good quality, and lastly for the very love of learning itself, are scarcely worth tempting with golden bait. Scholarships are not to be judged on the same basis as the few money prizes offered at Amherst and other colleges for speaking and literary composition, and which come to but a few of the very best, and as a rule to those who need the money. When twenty-five or thirty scholarships are offered in one class, for the same thing, their value as prizes, *ipso facto*, seriously diminishes.

But the most regrettable circumstance about the communication of "T. W. H." is his sad illusion about "caste distinctions," the enhancement of which is his chief objection to the present system. Judging of American colleges from Harvard of recent years, I think I may say that they have not yet come to such a pass that the student of such limited means as to need a scholarship is thought less of or less honored with those outward distinctions that students show their fellows, because he is such. We are not yet so low that we need "the equalizing influence of the English method," for the simple reason that "the heir of an estate" is on no better footing in an American college than "the poor young man." Good manners, good fellowship, and a fair amount of brains are a sufficient passport into the most esteemed circles of college life. A student of small income is necessarily excluded from a few clubs where the expenditure of money is as much an object as a means, and from intimate relations with those who actually spend a great deal, for the reason that he cannot follow them in their recreations. But it is not from this phase of college life that we can judge of social standing, or rather public standing as a member of a class. With these things the system of dispensing scholarships has nothing to do, and can have no effect for good or ill. It might be urged with much greater force that the prices of rooms should all be equalized for democratic reasons, and that Harvard students should not be allowed to occupy the \$500 rooms in the private dormitory known as Beck Hall. A cheap room is such an evident sign of small means as a scholarship is not, and the separation of students into occupants of cheap and of expensive dormitories has a much greater tendency to develop caste than any system of administering scholarships. The same line of argument would abolish the Harvard "loan fund" for the relief of poor students without regard to rank, or distribute it evenly over the poor and the rich, as undoubtedly the latter could find a use for it. Lastly, it must not be forgotten that colleges in England and America are essentially eleemosynary institutions. It is only a matter of degree, to which the recipients of the highest scholarships, the cheaper ones, and of none at all are indebted to the founders and benefactors of their Alma Mater; and it is a wonder that the abnormally delicate natures who told "T. W. H." "with a chagrin amounting to bitterness and with tears in their eyes of the struggle it cost them to accept that visible badge of poverty" called a scholarship, could ever have condescended to come to Cambridge at all, when, according to President Eliot's calculation, they must have cost the college \$100 more than they paid in tuition fees, and to that extent have been pensioners on the charity of the past.

B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading the letter on "Open Scholarships in American Colleges," from your correspondent "T. W. H.," the impression was conveyed to me that the writer associated with the collegiate distinction of sizarship the invariable and general condition of poverty. If such be the case he is certainly mistaken, as in the Dublin University the sizarship examination, whether classical or mathematical, is purely competitive and unrestricted by any other conditions than those of previous failure. Neither poverty nor wealth is a recommendation or hindrance.

A DUBLIN UNIVERSITY EX-SIZAR.

READING, PA., March 1, 1879.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, OSGOOD & CO. will publish 'Locusts and Wild Honey,' by John Burroughs, in a uniform edition with his 'Wake Robin' and 'Winter Sunshine.'—We have received from John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, 'Studies from the Biological Laboratory of Johns Hopkins University, No. 1,' a collection of five papers, all of which save one have already appeared in medical periodicals. The principal one, by the editor, Prof. H. Newell Martin, is on respiration in the frog. Several plates accompany this number.—The Third Annual Report of the Trustees of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts gives a very impressive idea of the prosperity of that institution, and of its usefulness, now that it has been enlarged. "With the pupils of the Drawing School and those of the Embroidery, the Wood-Carving and Modelling, and the China-Painting Schools, the Museum presents an appearance of activity and life most pleasant to behold."—"Hydrographic Notice No. 6," just issued by the Bureau of Navigation at Washington, though intended primarily for the enlightenment of mariners, has an interest for all who are fond of geographical study, and especially of Arctic research. It gives a succinct account of the present expedition of Prof. Nordenskjöld, which is attempting the northeastern circumnavigation of the Siberian coast, and which, after successfully rounding Cape Tehelyuskin, and passing the mouth of the Lena River at the end of August last, has been reported ice-bound not very far west from Behring Strait. The last letters from the Swedish professor describing his voyage are given in full, with extracts from those of the *Vega's* officers; and a copy of Lieut. Palander's chart from the Yenisei to the Lena Delta is appended. This "Notice" so much resembles a fragment of a Geographical Magazine as to suggest the possibility of the Hydrographic Office in some measure supplying a serious want in our scientific literature.—An ardent genealogist proposes in the *Evening Post* that the youth of New York celebrate the 21st of February, 1880, by "the reading or speaking of their several essays on the characteristics of Washington"; and offers the rooms of the "Pilgrim Record Society" for that purpose, at No. 20 Sutton Place.—From *Nature* (January 30) we learn of a Postal Microscopical Society, now five years old, which distributes by post microscopical slides among its members, "with facilities for these members making remarks on the slides they receive." Special slides for the medical members and for those botanically inclined are in preparation.—We lately called attention to the Boston Society of Natural History's "Guides for Science-Teaching." Three numbers (four parts) have now been issued, viz.: "About Pebbles," and "Commercial and Other Sponges," by Alpheus Hyatt; and "Concerning a Few Common Plants," by Prof. Geo. L. Goodale. Mr. Hyatt's lessons are illustrated.—The Annual Report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1878 traces with particularity the southern limit of the glacial drift in that State, and promises much greater detail hereafter; describes and classifies the soils, and defines the pine and oak areas of the southeastern portion of the State; indicates the newer clay and glass-sand developments; discusses the important question of water supply for the most thickly settled section—the suburbs of New York; and generally illustrates the material resources of New Jersey and the practical value of the Survey, furnishing a guide to capitalists and investors in land, and pointing the way to needed public improvements. It is accompanied by a beautiful map, showing the drift, the oak, and the pine districts.—Mr. Seymour Haden has issued a syllabus of a course of three lectures on "Etching," to be delivered on March 22, March 29, and April 5, at the Royal Institution, Albemarle Street, the Alma Mater of the London lecture halls. To have lectured there is almost as great a distinction as a university degree. The first lecture treats of the History of Etching; the origin and *raison d'être* of etching and painter-engraving; in what they differ from ordinary engraving; why the Old Masters etched, and

why the art should not be lost: the masters of etching (illustrated). The second lecture explains the Preparation of the Plate: metals and their mordants, and the modus operandi (demonstrated). The third lecture will review the paper, the ink, the press, the printing (demonstrated), and the proof. Touching these lectures Mr. Haden himself writes to a correspondent: "If my art opinions have any recommendation, it is that they are certainly not the opinions of anybody else." It will be interesting to read these opinions when uttered at full length.

—We sincerely regret that our faulty memory of the circumstances attending the publication of a recent paper on "The Amendment of the Patent Law" in *Scribner's Magazine* led us last week to speak of it as having "escaped the editorial vigilance." It was, in fact, avowedly inserted as an answer to a previous article on "Our Patent System" in the November number, and neither its origin nor its partisan character was concealed. Our imputation was, therefore, unjust in this particular. Still, we suppose it is reasonable (and this was the spirit of our criticism on *Scribner's*) to hold magazine editors to some accountability for the good faith of their contributors, even when a "symposium" is in question, or letting both sides be heard. That this precaution would have been wise in the case of Mr. Raymond, in spite of his legal relations to the Western Railroad Association, clearly appears from a communication headed "Conscience and the Patent Laws," on p. 762 of the March number of *Scribner's*—a communication which we did not happen to read till after our last issue.

—Mr. William Winter is one of the few writers on current theatrical topics who has knowledge both of the stage and of the drama, as well as some share of the critical faculty, and who has distinct ideas on the art of acting, and shows, therefore, some sense of proportion in his remarks on the plays and players of the day. It was he who prepared the letter-press for the twelve striking drawings of Mr. W. J. Hennessy, representing Mr. Edwin Booth's 'Dramatic Characters,' and he is now engaged in editing a series of this actor's prompt-books, or editions of the plays in which Mr. Booth appears, printed as they are acted—that is, with many omissions and transpositions, and a few interpolations made necessary by the great changes in the physical conditions of the theatre—changes which have been especially important within the past half century. We have, for one thing, adopted the fashion of using, when possible, only one set scene to an act. To this fashion both Shakspeare and Sheridan must conform. Most, if not all, of our acting editions of old plays were made before this fashion obtained, and they are, therefore, now behind the age. More than this, the accumulated traditions of the stage provide a fund of "business," or by-play, which adds greatly to the effect of the play when acted. Mr. Booth's experience, personal and inherited, has shown him what to select and what to reject. The version of the play prepared by him is here printed on one side of the page only, the other being left blank for any remarks the student may have to make. An introduction to each piece, notes on the costume and scenery, selections from the leading criticisms of the work, and extracts from other authors, shedding light on the motive of the play, have been contributed by Mr. Winter with taste and skill. No more instructive lesson in the requirements of the theatre can easily be had than a careful comparison between "Hamlet" as it reads in a good edition of Shakspeare and in these beautifully-printed prompt-books.

—The English Dialect Society have published, through Trübner & Co., Part I. (A-F) of a 'Dictionary of English Plant Names,' compiled by James Britten and Robert Holland; an octavo volume of more than two hundred pages. It is the result of ten years' labor, and in part embraces vernacular names hitherto unpublished, in part those which have been printed in dictionaries like Halliwell's and Wright's, and in county glossaries and vocabularies, and also the names (whether now obsolete or not) "by which British plants are mentioned in the works of the older botanists." An effort has been made in every case to identify the plant by its scientific name, and to give a reference to the earliest occurrence of the popular name in print. There are frequent quotations from the poets, both early and late; thus, we get some idea of Shakspeare's "canker in the hedge," and "dead men's fingers call them," and learn what may be known about Milton's "twisted eglantine," and this about Wordsworth's "little celandine": "So called because that it beginneth to spring and to floure at the comming of the swallowes [*chelidonium*], and withereth at their return." Apropos of *Canterbury bells*, we are told what sort of bells the pilgrims hung to their horses, and why; with *Danes' Blood* there would appear to be a genuine local historical association; *dogwood* takes its name not from the animal but from the skewers made from it;

horse-chestnut, generally thought equivalent to "coarse chestnut," is perhaps traceable to the custom prevalent "in the East Country, and so through all Turkie," of giving the fruit "unto horses, to cure them of the cough, shortnesse of winde, and such other diseases"; *bay-berries* is pleonastic, as "in old works bay means a berry generally"; *brunel* (*Brunella vulgaris*) "took its rise from the German *die Braune*, an 'infirmity among soldiers that lie in a campe,'" and for which the plant served as a specific. There is a multitude of names of the following class: *Adam-and-Eve*, *Boots-and-Shoes*, *Butter-and-Bread*, *Cats-and-Dogs*, *Cocks-and-Hens*, *Eggs-and-Bacon*, *Face-and-Hood*, *Fingers-and-Toes*, etc. Among corrupted names, none is more curious than *Cast me-down*—(*assidonie*—*Stachas sidonia*). The different ways of spelling the same name are best exemplified in *acharne* ('acorn'), etc., to *atchorn*, fourteen in all, not counting "The pigs are gone o' *atchorning*." An index of scientific names groups the vernacular synonyms very strikingly; a single plant has in some cases as many as twenty or thirty different appellations.

—The historical literature of the year 1878 was very meagre; and although it includes many works of solid merit, very few of these will be found to stand unequivocally in the first rank as works of literature. The field of ancient history has been distinguished by publications upon antiquities rather than history proper. Undoubtedly the most important accomplishments in this field have been the excavations at Olympia and elsewhere, and the accounts (as Schliemann's 'Mycenæ') of excavations made in previous years. The translation of Max Duncker's 'History of Antiquity,' of which the first volume has appeared, is important for the English public. Of original works there have been some valuable ones, in both modern and ancient history, in the "Epoch Series"; besides this, there is Bosworth Smith's 'Carthage and the Carthaginians.' We will also mention the republication of Sir Gardner Wilkinson's 'Ancient Egyptians,' and the new and sumptuous edition of Duruy's 'Histoire des Romains.'

—In mediæval history there has been rather more. The second and third volumes of Gfrörer's 'Byzantinische Geschichten,' edited since the author's death by Dr. Weiss, reach the year 1071; this is a work of high value, although it is one-sided, representing the author's ultramontane position. Covering partly the same period is Osborn's 'Islam under the Khalifs of Bagdad,' continuing the author's 'Islam under the Arabs.' A German work in the same field is Lüttke's 'Der Islam und seine Völker.' A new volume in the Heeren and Ukert (and Giesebrecht) series is the 'History of Bavaria,' by Sigmund Riezler, author of 'Die literarischen Widersacher der Päpste.' The first volume reaches the year 1180. To judge from the author's previous works, it must be especially valuable in the history of civilization. Denis's 'Huss et la Guerre des Hussites' is pronounced a work of high merit, based upon original research. The translation of Burekhardt's 'Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy' belongs also here. For Church history we would notice Böhlinger's 'Kirche Christi,' a biographical history of the church before the Reformation; ten volumes have appeared of a second edition, and three more are yet to appear (devoted to Augustine, Leo I., and Gregory I.), the whole covering the ground of the first volume of the original edition. It is pronounced to have almost the value of a patristic library. Trench's 'Mediæval Church History' we lately noticed. Gairdner's 'Richard III.' belongs to the close of the Middle Ages. This monarch, we are happy to say, is not "rehabilitated." Rambaud's 'Histoire de la Russie' (of which a translation has been announced) is a book which has received the highest praise. Reuter's 'Geschichte der religiösen Aufklärung' has been brought, in the second volume, down to the year 1300. The third volume of Stubbs's 'Constitutional History of England' completes the work.

—In modern history there is comparatively little. The second volume of Reumont's 'Toscana' comes down to 1859. Moritz Ritter, too, has a volume on the Cleves and Juliers war of succession (1610-11). For the eighteenth century Arneht's 'Geschichte Maria Theresias,' vol. 8, reaches the year 1776. For the same period De Broglie's 'Secret du Roi' has done a little, but perhaps not much, to rescue Louis XV. from the contempt in which he is held. The new volume of Taine's 'Origines' is important. Dixon's 'History of the Church of England,' vol. I., covers the important period 1520-37. The new volumes (fourth and fifth) of Masson's 'Milton' belong rather to history than biography. The most important work in the modern history of England is probably Lecky's 'England in the Eighteenth Century,' although Walpole's 'History of England in the Nineteenth Century' has also great merit. For American history we have the second volume of Bryant, and the second volume of Von Holst's great work.

—A fresh interest in the Mendelssohn family has been awakened in Germany by the publication of Hensel's 'Die Familie Mendelssohn' (Berlin: Behr). The author, a nephew of Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, has made a most judicious use of the materials at his disposal, and by numerous letters and extracts from diaries, added to his own personal reminiscences, enables one to form a most charming picture of this extraordinarily-gifted family. The first volume opens with a short biography of Moses Mendelssohn, whose petition to the king, Frederic the Great, for permission to live permanently in Berlin, his friend D'Argens endorsed with the words: "Un philosophe mauvais catholique supplie un philosophe mauvais protestant de donner le privilège à un philosophe mauvais juif. Il y a trop de philosophie dans tout ceci, pour que la raison ne soit pas du côté de la demande." His two oldest sons, Joseph and Abraham, the founders of the great Berlin banking-house, were both remarkable men. The former devoted himself in his leisure hours to scientific studies, and was a friend of Humboldt. Hensel relates that Humboldt came to him one day in great distress. He had just received notice to quit his house, in which were stored his vast collections. That afternoon Joseph wrote to him as follows: "The house in which you live is now mine. Arrange it to suit yourself." Abraham, the father of Felix, was in many respects like his father, and the picture of his family life is almost ideal in its beauty. There are many of his letters, together with those of his daughters, Fanny and Rebecca, full of vivacious descriptions of the persons they meet and the things they see. There are also some, very remarkable for the nobility of their sentiment and the purity of their diction, written by his wife Leah. Hensel closes his work, which has been for some time privately circulated, with the death of Felix in 1847.

—An interesting pamphlet, professedly written by a Russian, who conceals his name, appeared last year, bearing the title 'Études sur le développement politique, social et intellectuel de la Russie depuis la guerre de Crimée,' and dated St. Petersburg, May, 1878 (Neufchâtel: J. Sandoz). It deals with the progress in public instruction in the writer's native country. In the first fifteen years of the reign of the present Emperor the higher public instruction made rapid progress; after that date a retrograde movement showed itself, but this was counterbalanced by progress in another direction. Between 1868 and 1872 the students of the universities had diminished twenty per cent., but those of other superior schools had increased in fully the same proportion. The Technological Institute, which had only 480 pupils in 1868, had more than 1,000 in 1875; the Academy of Medicine had at the same time 1,400. There were 350 in the four military and one nautical academies, and about 4,000 in those of the mining engineers, roads and bridges, forests, architecture, philology, and agriculture, and other kindred institutions; and as most of the special schools have a course of four years, it may be estimated that about 2,400 youths per year enjoy the benefits of the higher instruction, which, estimating the population at 80,000,000, would only give an average of one educated person in 33,000 souls. In 1855 Russia had only 77 gymnasia with 17,817 pupils; in 1875, 184, and 47,639 pupils. Adding the *real*-schools, those of the Ministry of War, and the normal, agricultural, commercial, and technical, there are in Russia more than 70,000 collegians, or one to 1,145 of the population; while in France there is one to 250, and in Germany one to 228. With regard to the means of education for girls the situation is much better. The pupils of the Russian female gymnasia have been found by the professors of the University of Zürich better prepared than any of the other female students, and this has also been noticed at the St. Petersburg Academy of Medicine and the universities of Moscow and Kiev. The creation of gymnasia for girls is the work of our day, as they did not exist under Nicholas. In 1875 there were 62, and 136 pro-gymnasia, with 30,147 pupils, which must be augmented by 6,000 girls receiving secondary instruction in several of the large towns; many of these are devoting themselves in their turn to instruction, and doing valuable work in the primary schools. The army schools have likewise powerfully contributed to the spread of education. Among the recruits 87 per cent. are totally ignorant, whilst at least 50 per cent. of the soldiers can now read and write—thus, 37 per cent. owe their primary instruction to their service in the army. The ecclesiastical schools are losing ground; in 1865 there were 230 schools and 52,083 pupils; in 1875 there were 243 schools and 40,596 pupils, a diminution of more than 11,000 pupils in ten years; this diminution is, however, the less to be regretted, as the principal object of these schools seems to be to retain their pupils in the routine and superstition which are repugnant to modern ideas of progress and enlightenment. The announcement has recently been made that a university would immediately

be established at Tomsk, in Siberia. This was strongly recommended in 1875 by Kaznakoff, the Governor-General; and as the benefits of the higher instruction have heretofore been denied the inhabitants of Siberia, Turkestan, and the Caucasus, they will doubtless joyfully welcome this addition to their means of superior instruction.

LINGUISTIC PALEONTOLOGY.*

THIS exhaustive work, the revision of which was the latest labor of its lamented author, is a notable example of the manner in which, by modern methods, philology is brought to elucidate the history of the human race. No sooner was the relationship established between the group of languages known as Indo-European, or Aryan, than scholars perceived that by tracing individual words through the several tongues in which they occur, light would be thrown upon the origin and history of the ideas or things represented by those words, and conclusions could, with considerable certainty, be drawn as to the connection between different nationalities and also as to their progress in culture prior to the successive divisions of the race. Thus, to take a familiar example, the marked identity in the names of the primary numbers throughout the Aryan dialects shows that the decimal numeration was familiar to the prehistoric ancestors of the race while yet united in Central Asia. This interesting line of thought has been industriously worked out by successive generations of philologists; and, in the book before us, the results of the labors of Bopp, Grimm, Benfey, Pott, Weber, Lassen, Müller, Kuhn, Fick, Burnouf, Rosen, Wilson, Muir, Roth, Whitney, Aufrecht, Bohtlingk, Grassmann, Justi, and many others, are brought together by the learned author, are acutely analyzed and classified in order.

In the history of mankind there is no grander subject of investigation than the career of the great Aryan family which, starting from its rugged Asian home, has encircled the world, founding successive empires, ever foremost in the arts of peace and war and in the race of civilization, and evidently destined in the future to dominate the earth. The events now taking place in the East wear a new and picturesque significance when viewed in connection with the past. It is probably at least five thousand years since the European Aryans left their brethren to the east of the Caspian; and now we see a fragment of the Teutonic branch returning by new and circuitous paths and overthrowing a realm of their Hindu kindred four thousand years old; while the Slavic branch has gone back by nearly the original route to reoccupy its ancestral seat, and Saxon and Slav are preparing for a death-struggle, the prize of the victor being the original home of the common stock.

To reconstruct, from the depths of forgotten Time, the vanished civilization of the rude fathers of these energetic nations is surely an interesting task, and the manner in which it has been so far accomplished shows how much can be done from unpromising materials by a careful combination of analysis and synthesis. M. Pictet commences by investigating the ethnographic questions involved in the names of the various peoples sprung from the Aryan stock. To determine their original habitat he then considers the terms relating to weather and climate. Thus, he shows that the names of winter and spring can be traced throughout all Aryan tongues, proving that these words and the ideas which they represent were formulated before the earliest separation of the tribes; that summer is indicated by a word common to the Zend, the Celtic, and the Germanic dialects, while it differs in Sanskrit and the classical languages, thus showing that different estimates were placed on the hot season by those whose migrations led them into different climates; and that the terms designating autumn are as divergent as possible in the various tongues, showing that the season was not recognized as distinct until after the complete dispersion of the race. In this mode he proceeds with geographical and topographical terms—mountain and valley, sea and river, rocks and stones, etc. Then taking up the names of metals, he gives us much curious insight into the comparative degrees of civilization indicated by familiarity with these indispensable instruments of progress. Turning to the vegetable world, he first considers general terms, such as tree, trunk, branch, root, wood, bark, leaf, flower, forest, etc.; then the wild species, as oak, pine, elm, beech; the cultivated ones, as the apple, pear, plum, cherry, almond, chestnut, walnut; then grains and vegetables in detail, and finally wild flowers. Passing to animals, he first investigates the names of domestic beasts; and here we may instance, as an example of his method, the interesting research into the appellations of the cow and bull. Thus, for bull and cow we have in Sanskrit *gau*

* Les Origines Indo-Européennes, ou les Aryas Primitifs. Essai de Paléontologie Linguistique. Par Adolphe Pictet. Deuxième édition, revue et augmentée. 3 vols. 8vo. Paris. 1878. New York: F. W. Christern.

or *go*, Zend *gao*, Persian *go* or *gaw*, Bucharian *gao*, Kurdish *gha*, Afghan *guai*, Armenian *gov* or *kor*, Old-German *chuo*, Anglo-Saxon *eu*, English *cow*, Lettish *gows*. The Slav dialects only retain it in some derivatives. In the classical and Celtic tongues the frequent substitution of *b* for *g* gives us for the masculine *βούς* and *bos*; while for the feminine we have the Irish *bo*, Cymric *bu*, Armoric *bu*, and Cornish *buch*. Another Sanskrit term *vaca*, and *vaça*, shows the origin of the Latin *vacca*, with its numerous Neo-Latin derivatives. For bull or ox there are various Sanskrit words—*ukshan*, *sthira*, *balin*, *usra*, *mahisha*, and *danya*, which can all be traced in other languages. To *ukshan* can be assigned the Zend *ukhshan*, Gothic *auhsa*, Anglo-Saxon *oxa*, English *ox*, Scandinavian *oxe*, Old-German *ohso*, Cymric *yeh*, Armoric *ochen*, Irish *ess*. To *sthira*, the Gothic *stiur*, Anglo-Saxon *steor* or *styre*, English *steer*, Old-German *stior*, Scandinavian *thior*, Swedish *tjur*, Danish *tyr*, Greek *ταύρος*, Latin *taurus*, Russian, Polish, and Bohemian *tor*, Irish *tor*, Lithuanian *tauras*. To *balin*, the Persian *bala*, Russian *vol*, Polish *wol*, Bohemian *wul*, Lithuanian *builtis* and *bullus*, Scandinavian *bauli*, Anglo-Saxon *bulluca*, English *bull* and *bullock*, Irish *bulan* and *bulog*, Welsh *bula*. To *usra*, the Old-German *ur* and *uro*, Anglo-Saxon *ur*, Scandinavian *ur* and *uri*, Celtic *urus*, and German *auer-ochs*. To *danya*, the Old-Irish *dam* and Albanian *dhemä*. That the domestication of the bull was originally due to the Aryans would seem to be shown by the extension of various Sanskrit synonyms among the other great families of mankind. Thus, *gu* has penetrated to China, where it is found in the form *go*. *Ukshan* and *mahisha* are the sources of various Tartar designations. *Sthira* or *sthura* is the source of the Semitic appellatives, as Chaldee *lora*, Syriac *tauro*, Arabic *thawr*, Hebrew *shor*, Ethiopian *lore*. And it is noteworthy that the three Coptic words, *mase*, bull, *rashi*, cow, and *ehe*, ox, correspond with the three Sanskrit names, *mahisha*, *vaca*, and *ahi*. The same process applied to the words employed to designate the horse shows the origin of all, or nearly all, the European names for that animal in the rich synonymy of the Sanskrit, which has nearly a hundred and fifty words signifying horse, mare, colt, etc., and in a subsequent chapter there is a very interesting investigation into the relation between the terms used for cattle and those denoting fortune, wealth, property, etc., into the details of which space will not permit us to enter. Attention is likewise paid to the myths connected with the cow, which show the supreme importance attached to that animal in the pastoral life of the primitive Aryans; singularly enough, however, no allusion is made to the remarkable coincidence of the cosmogonic cows, Abudal and Audhumbla, in the Zend and Norse mythologies, though the latter is mentioned, as well as the cow Surabhi, produced by the Hindu Devas, when they churned the ocean with the mountain Mandara.

Closely connected with this are the terms relating to milk, which afford an interesting example of the deviation of words from their original significance. Thus, the Sanskrit *duh*, to milk, gives *duhitar*, she who milks, whence are derived the various appellatives of daughter, in the Iranian, Hellenic, Celtic, Germanic, and Slavic dialects. But the Vedic poets regarded rain as the milk (*doha* or *dugdha*) of the clouds or heavenly cows, whence are derived the Scandinavian *dugg*, rain, the Old-German *tau* or *tou*, Anglo-Saxon *daw*, English *dew*, Pomeranian *dauk*, Old-Slav *duzhdy*, Russian *dozhdy*, etc., while the English *dug*, a teat, is evidently a reminiscence of the original sense. On the other hand, our word "to milk" is traceable to the Sanskrit *marg*, signifying to stroke or rub, whence come the Greek *ἀνέλω*, Latin *mulgeo*, Old-Irish *malg*, Anglo-Saxon *meolcan*, Scandinavian *miolka*, Old-German *mechan*, Lithuanian *milzti*, etc., leading to the inference that the Oriental Aryans adhered to the primitive significance of *duh*, while the Western branches, in attaching to it the derivative meaning of rain, sought a different root for the idea of milk and milking, and this before they split into the divisions which formed the Hellenic, Italiote, Celtic, Teutonic, and Slavic races. Thus we are led to the conjecture that a separation took place in the East prior to the time when the first of the successive Aryan bands sought new homes towards the setting sun.

It would be interesting to follow M. Pictet as he thus proceeds to discuss in due order the Aryan philology of all the other varieties of natural objects, poultry, vermin, and parasites, wild beasts, birds, fish, reptiles, shells, and insects, for curious questions present themselves on every hand from materials apparently the most insignificant. This, however, is impossible here, and we can only indicate briefly the remainder of his plan, which leads him to consider next the terms connected with material civilization, examining successively the pursuits of man, hunting and fishing, pastoral life and its products, agriculture, with its

processes and implements, arts and trades, including war and weapons; products of industry, houses, utensils, clothing and ornaments, food and drink. Thus two volumes are filled, and the third commences with social relations, starting with the family and taking up successively property, law, manners, and customs. Finally, consideration is given to intellectual, moral, and religious conceptions, embracing psychology, numeration, astronomy, traditions, superstitions, and religion, which are all treated with the same overflowing abundance of detail; and the work ends with some chronological speculations of little moment, and an exceedingly interesting résumé, in which the results of the preceding laborious investigation are condensed into a sketch of what may with reasonable certainty be affirmed of the condition of civilization and thought among our prehistoric ancestors. To all this there is lacking the indispensable index—that aid to reference of which the Frenchman (or Swiss) seems to be congenitally ignorant, and the absence of which deprives a book like the present of fully one-half of its permanent working value.

In a work of so large a scope as this, built up of infinite minute and scattered fragments, and treating of many points which have been and yet are the objects of warm discussion among the most competent scholars, it would be idle to expect absolute completeness or positive certainty on all points. Yet no one can peruse it without feeling confidence in the laborious industry, the fairness, and the modesty of the author, who is content to state his doubts, where doubt exists, to give the opinions of those who differ from him, and to put forward his own on controverted questions without presuming to assert that he has found the correct solutions where others have failed.

Some few omissions and deficiencies we have observed. Thus, in considering the Sanskrit root *labh*, to take, reference might properly have been made to the derivative *Laverna*, the Latin goddess of acquisition, who became the patroness of thieves and swindlers. Anglo-Saxon words, moreover, are not as frequently cited as might have been desirable. *Bau* and *bana* might have been quoted among the derivatives of the Sanskrit *bandh*, to punish or put to death; under *magha*, power, in addition to the Anglo-Saxon *magan*, it would have been desirable to cite *mag*, whence comes the English *may*; and when collecting the terms which show the custom of using the hand to confirm contracts, *handfastung* and *handfestung* might appropriately have been introduced. Still more remarkable is the omission of the Anglo-Saxon *weelig*, wealthy, alongside of *wealdan*, to rule, in considering the derivatives of *eriddhi* in their curious divarication into terms signifying respectively riches and power. The fragments also of ancient German speech, preserved in the Malbergian glosses of the Salic Law, corrupt as they are, might occasionally have afforded an illustration which has been overlooked. Thus, a word which is variously written *antheði*, *antheðio*, *antidio* and *authedio*, with the evident meaning of theft, might properly have been alluded to, along with the Gothic *thiubs*, the Irish *taid*, and the Anglo-Saxon *theof*, among the derivatives of the Sanskrit root *ta*; and the Malbergian form *chana*, for cock, would have served as a link in the chain between the Sanskrit *kanuka*, Old-German *hano*, and Anglo-Saxon *hona*, whence comes our modern *hen*.

More serious is M. Pictet's error when, in examining the Aryan traditions of the Deluge as they have existed among the Hindus, Greeks, Celts, Teutons, and Lithuanians, he states that no trace of it is to be found in the ancient Iranian branch, omitting the fact that it is described in detail in the Bundeshesh. This oversight is the more notable since he compares the moral and religious lesson taught concerning it in Genesis with the assumed absence of such a lesson in the Aryan traditions, for the Bundeshesh specially tells us that the flood was sent by the Creator to destroy the *kharvastars*, or noxious beings formed by Ahriman, and that the rain fell until all the earth was covered to the height of a man, and all the *kharvastars* were drowned. In fact, the author is not always to be followed implicitly in his observations upon religious faiths and customs. Thus, he is evidently mistaken in assuming that the slaughter of wives and followers at the pyre or grave, by Celts and Teutons, shows a return to barbarism by those tribes after enjoying a higher civilization among the prehistoric Aryans. It is true that the Suttie was not enjoined in Vedic times; but there is nothing to show that such sacrifices were not practised, at least occasionally; and we have evidence that they were in vogue among the Turanians at a very early period—possibly coeval with that of the Aryans prior to their dispersion—affording grounds for the belief that the origin of the custom of giving companions to the dead in the future world is attributable to a period earlier than the primal separation of man on the eastern continent into the families at present recognized. M. Pictet's argument, moreover, to show that the polytheism of

historic times arose out of a presumed original monotheism, is inconclusive and illogical; and the limitations of the philological process in his hands are shown in the fact that he omits to make any reference to ancestor-worship as part of the early Aryan faith, although its existence in all the branches of the race indicates that it was a leading feature, if not the original source, of the primitive religion.

All these, however, are trivial defects which can be readily overlooked in a work which brings to the reader in orderly sequence so vast a mass of recondite learning. It has been the labor of a life-time, and our thanks are due, in no stinted measure, to the patient and laborious scholar who has rendered accessible to us that which throws so much light on many debatable questions in the history of material, mental, and religious development.

MOZLEY'S ESSAYS.*

THESE two handsome volumes represent only in part the results of a laborious literary career of thirty years. They are taken from contributions made at various times to the *British Critic*, the *Christian Remembrancer*, and the *Quarterly Review*, and recall the elaborate treatment which seems fast becoming a tradition in our periodical literature. Several of them, indeed, in point of bulk are more like a volume than a magazine article; yet they are nowhere open to the charge of being diffuse. It is not often that a collection of miscellaneous writings bears throughout so genuine and strong an impress of the writer's personality. Dr. Mozley led a retired life, and only in the latter portion of it came to be widely known; but he seems to have made a deep impression upon those who were brought into personal contact with him, and this impression will be shared by all who become acquainted with him through these pages. Even without the help of the affectionate and appreciative sketch which opens the volumes it would be impossible not to arrive at the conclusion that the author was a very able, a very sincere, and a very honest man; a man equally strong in his convictions, tenacious in his grasp, and independent in arriving at his conclusions. While according for the most part a hearty support to a particular party, and with an inclination to controversy which showed itself in his earliest years, when as a child he was forced to listen to religious teachings from which his intelligence revolted, he was yet never held within the strict lines of party discipline, and never failed to couple a certain largeness and generosity of view with an uncommon capacity of disapprobation. His strongest intellectual bent was in the line of metaphysical enquiry; when dealing with philosophical principles his grasp was always vigorous. Combined with his marked analytic faculty was a cognate disposition to study the workings of human character, a disposition in his case so strong that the habit of searching beneath the external act for the hidden motive amounted almost to an instinct. We are told that he habitually speculated on the character of all with whom he came in contact, a fact which accounts for the distinctive merits and distinctive defects of the volumes before us.

The first is filled with four elaborate essays upon Strafford, Laud, Cromwell, and Luther. Respecting the first two Dr. Mozley writes with the enthusiasm of an ardent admirer; respecting the last two with naturally a good deal of qualification. Yet the four essays have many points of resemblance. They abound in acute discrimination, they are vigorous in treatment, they evince a familiar acquaintance with the subjects discussed. With the exception of an infrequent phrase, which at times unpleasantly recalls the method of dealing with the opposite side of which the now forgotten novel of 'Ten Thousand a Year' was an illustration, they are courteous in tone, and to a young student, whose knowledge of the Civil Wars was derived mainly from Macaulay, they might serve as a wholesome corrective. Yet we cannot rank either one of these essays as a very important contribution to history. Not only do they all have the stamp of a controversial motive, but they are all alike defective in their mode of treatment. They are not historical, but analytical; and as a result we have not so much well-rounded conclusions from a wide survey of ascertained fact, as acute and ingenious speculation respecting probable motives. In his persistent impulse to search into the secret springs of action, Dr. Mozley falls into the very natural but very dangerous error of interpreting the facts of history in the light of some preconceived hypothesis.

It is easy to see how for a mind so peculiarly constituted as his the unique and dramatic character of Strafford must possess a strong attraction. He instinctively looks at the great earl not as a public man,

related to a particular period, and charged with certain definite responsibilities both to his king and country, but as an ideal hero to be judged by a purely ideal standard. He is described as a genuine Shaksperian character; his unmeasured violence is gently designated "poetical excess in the article of proper pride and independence"; he was "full of his own majestic, illimitable idea of monarchy"; "a magnificent Norman viceroy, swiftly confronting and beating a nation." His statesmanship is praised for "its restless saliency, elasticity, fecundity." Could Charles only have trusted this guide, "his high-mettled charger would have carried him over all the Pym and Hampdens right speedily." We need hardly say that this is not judging the career of Strafford by any of the tests which a sound historical criticism would recognize. An actor who played a conspicuous part in a great political crisis, whose acts were factors of momentous import for the welfare or misery of a nation, must be measured by more practical tests than those we should apply to one of the heroes of the Round Table.

Archbishop Laud is viewed by Dr. Mozley in much the same light. He is a prelate who had "caught the mediæval idea of the Church as a political estate, with pomp, wealth, and honors"; the feeling which he cherished towards it "amounted to a species of poetry." Here we see the same disposition to judge a career, not in its actual relations and from its actual results, but from a standard supplied by an analysis of the character and aims of the individual. "A great career founded on a dream" is Dr. Mozley's verdict on the man whose mistaken policy brought both church and state to ruin; but in this very statement is there not involved a contradiction? Too fair and intelligent to urge against Cromwell the vulgar charges of his enemies, Dr. Mozley characteristically falls back upon an acute distinction of Bishop Butler to prove that the Protector was essentially a hypocrite. The essay upon Luther contains a genial estimate of the reformer, but no more than the others deserves to be called an historical study.

It is in the second of these volumes that the distinctive qualities of Dr. Mozley as a writer appear to best advantage. The article on Dr. Arnold is a masterly estimate of a man richly deserving praise and admiration, but who, owing to various circumstances, has been admired and praised quite as much as he deserved. The remark that Arnold's character was too joyous, too brimful to possess the finest element of interest, shows the penetration of the writer's view. The estimate of Blanco White is also marked throughout by just discrimination. The essay upon the Book of Job is an admirable illustration of the writer's analytic power. But on the whole the paper reprinted from the *Quarterly Review* upon "The Argument of Design" presents the most striking evidences of Dr. Mozley's uncommon aptitude for philosophical discussion. The passage in which he explodes the common error respecting Lord Bacon's estimate of final causes is an instance of his studied accuracy of statement. We find, indeed, on every page evidences of a mental discipline of the highest order.

Turner's Liber Studiorum; a Description and a Catalogue. By W. G. Rawlinson. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878. 8vo, pp. xlvii. 207.)—This handsome volume addresses a comparatively small number of readers, but it will be welcome to all collectors of the plates of the 'Liber Studiorum,' and to all students of Turner's work who have opportunity to examine these plates with the degree of attention which they deserve. In the execution of his task Mr. Rawlinson displays ample knowledge and good judgment and good taste. His technical descriptions are minutely exact, and his critical remarks are discriminating and to the point. As an account of the 'Liber Studiorum' the book is in marked contrast to the treatment which this "supreme contribution of the nineteenth century, the first great century of landscape art, to the choicest stores of pure art engraving," receives from Mr. Hamerton in the few pages given to it in his recent 'Life of Turner.' In his introduction Mr. Rawlinson gives the history of the work, and supplies the requisite general information concerning it. In the catalogue he carefully describes each plate in its order, giving a full account of the various states in which it may be found, and accompanying his description with remarks on the character and motive of the design and the quality of the execution. After going through the catalogue, comparing its descriptions with the plates themselves, we can bear testimony to its remarkable accuracy. Few works of the kind are so trustworthy.

The book is one among many recent indications of the steady increase in the interest taken in Turner's work, and of the recognition of the fact that the 'Liber Studiorum,' though it does not represent the full development and highest reach of Turner's genius, and though, through the

* Essays, Historical and Theological. By J. B. Mozley, D.D., late Canon of Christ Church and Regius Professor of Divinity in the University of Oxford. 2 vols. 8vo. London: Rivingtons. 1878.

limitations inherent to its nature, it cannot exhibit some of his most remarkable qualities as an artist, is yet within its range an entirely unequalled achievement, and a record of exceptional artistic powers exercised in a field in which Turner has no rival. The fact that Turner etched nearly all, if not all, the plates himself, and that the mezzotinting added to the etched plate, if not done by his own hand, was done under his immediate and exacting supervision, gives to every good impression the character and value of an original work. No one can become familiar with the plates without, as Mr. Rawlinson justly says, gaining a strong sense of the artist's "personal presence throughout the work." The etchings themselves are of peculiar interest. They not only determine the leading lines of the subject, but they exhibit Turner's power—the result of a natural gift and of ceaseless industry—in the selection of lines at once expressive and beautiful. Alike in the delineation of the broad outlines of a landscape, whether a broken mountain chain or a placid pastoral scene, and in the delineation of the energetic and elastic growth of trees, the cleavage of rocks, the curves of the shore or the hulls of ships, Turner's line not only expresses the essential character of the scene or object, but does so under a controlling sense of the beautiful relations of each line to the others in his composition. The etching forms thus the skeleton of the piece which is clothed upon by the light and shade of the mezzotint. The union of these two modes of engraving had hardly been practised before, but there was a school of admirable mezzotint engravers in England competent to execute in the most skilful manner the work laid out for them by Turner. He himself learned the art. Some of the most beautiful plates of the *Liber* were engraved entirely by his own hand, and he executed wholly in mezzotint a few plates (not of the *Liber* series) which prove him to have been as eminent a master in that branch of engraving as in the art of etching.

The excellence of these plates, whether in the simple etching or in the completed engraving, is not obvious to the casual observer. There can be no greater error, and there is no more common one, than to suppose that the excellence of a great work of art reveals itself to every one at first inspection. All great work must be studied before it can be properly enjoyed; the greater it is the more it must be studied. But to be serviceable this study must be intelligently guided. To such as desire to appreciate and enjoy Turner's work, and who have access to the '*Liber Studiorum*' or any of the plates from it, we commend Mr. Rawlinson's book as an excellent manual of instruction.

Researches into the Early History of Mankind. By E. B. Tylor. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—The present edition varies but little, in amount of information and in ethnological principles, from the first issue of about twelve years ago. The great value of the work consists less in its scope and system than in the illustrations furnished of the scientific method of treating the subject. Rather than '*Researches into the Early History of Mankind*,' it might be described as a guide to the manner in which such researches should be conducted. One fundamental idea pervades the whole book: a firm conviction of the unity of the human race, "and that the wide differences in the civilization and mental state of the various races of mankind are rather differences of development than of origin, rather of degree than of kind." For this development Mr. Tylor finds, so to say, a prototype in man himself, the development of the individual being typical to him of the progress of the race; therefore Childhood is called upon to represent the "*Early History of Mankind*." It is unnecessary at this late day to follow in Mr. Tylor's logically successive and learned chapters the expression of this leading thought, which has to some extent determined the arrangement and sequence of his topics. We shall only remark that the "*Early History of Mankind*" presupposes an account of the formation and constitution of early human society, all the other features (utterance included) being only indispensable accessories or results arising from intercourse. Especially if we admit the unity of mankind, is society but the result of propagation of the species, and we may be permitted to doubt if in this case the development of the individual can be typical of that of the race, and whether childhood fitly represents the early times of a cluster made up of both sexes. This fact explains, however, why Mr. Tylor relegates the vital question of prohibition of marriage among kindred, and with it the question of marriage in general, to his chapter on "*Remarkable Customs*." It also explains his assertion that "the prohibitions of marriage among distant kindred go for least in proving connection by blood or intercourse between the distant races who practise them, as it is easy to suppose them to have grown up again and again from like grounds."

Primitive marriage, nevertheless, is the first departure for the explanation of primitive society, and the institutions of early human society should be the first and principal theme of "*Researches into the Early History of Mankind*."

It is impossible, in a work of this class, to avoid overlooking facts and points which may be of importance for special investigations or belonging to certain geographical areas, although they could be (and perhaps should be) profitably used for ethnological purposes. Thus we miss, in Mr. Tylor's chapter on the art of making fire, the important Mexican custom of the "new fire," practised, as an act of worship, every fifty-two years. Again, the story of the two black men of Van Diemen's Land who ultimately became the twin stars might fitly be accompanied by that of Hunahpu and Xbalanqué, the twin "braves" of Guatemala. But Mr. Tylor himself has more than amply apologized for such "errors and omissions" in his introduction. We fully endorse his view that "any one who collects and groups a mass of evidence, and makes an attempt to turn it to account which may lead to something better, has, I think, a claim to be exempt from any very harsh criticism of mistakes and omissions" (p. 12).

Profile. Von Karl Hillebrand. [Vol. IV. of '*Zeiten, Völker, und Menschen*,'] (Berlin: Oppenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1878.)—The essayist is often puzzled to invent a novel and yet suitable title for a collection of miscellanies. By using the term "*Profile*," Hillebrand, we infer, intimates that his essays do not profess to be portraits, but merely sharp outlines against a sober background. The gallery is well selected and sufficiently diversified. Its subjects are taken chiefly from the illustrious dead: only two, Renan and Taine, are among the living; but one, the Countess d'Agoult, is a woman. The princes of the house of Medici, Leopold I. of Tuscany, Tasso, Macchiavelli, and Gino Capponi represent Italy; Milton represents England; Rabelais, the age of Francis I. Besides the three already mentioned, we have Doudan, Balzac, Buloz, and Thiers from contemporary France.

These notices, whether we call them sketches or "profiles," are all interesting and suggestive. The author varies his tone, of course, but maintains his well-known freedom and breadth of view, and his intense conception of the personal element in both history and literature. Directness of expression and dislike of pedantry are, as might have been expected, everywhere manifest. The essays upon Taine, Renan, and Thiers will doubtless attract most attention. Hillebrand has a marked liking for the politician of the bourgeoisie. He sympathizes with Thiers's common sense and devotion to country. Thiers embodies, for him, a happy and uncommon union of fiery zeal with prudent tact. In the main, Hillebrand's remarks are a reaffirmation of the views he had already put forth in his '*History of France under Louis Philippe*.' One position, however, is not only novel, but is of sufficient importance to be worth reproducing in the author's words. No other writer, to our knowledge, has stated it so fully or so boldly. Thiers shared with the greater part of his contemporaries the delusion that the democratic state founded by Napoleon Bonaparte admitted of freedom and self-government. His ideal was: *Le Roi règne et M. Thiers gouverne*. This delusion he did not formally abandon until 1871, just before the end of his life; then his presidency, from 1871-3, became a dictatorship. Hillebrand concludes thus:

"No one familiar with the history of this century will deny that the rulers of France, from the First Consul down to Marshal MacMahon, have been each and all personal rulers, and that every minister, whether Martignac or Thiers, Barrot or Dufaure, Marcère or Jules Simon, who attempted to force them to keep within the limits of the constitutional fiction of a sovereign without responsibility, has been summarily thrust aside. That this personal government was not a matter of mere chance, a caprice on the part of the ruler, but a necessity of the French state as it issued from the Revolution and the Consulate—this Thiers perceived only in his seventy-sixth year, when it was proposed to make him himself a constitutional ruler with a responsible ministry, and to banish him from Parliament. He rejected the suggestion peremptorily, as Bonaparte had done before him, only in more temperate language. It was the solitary recantation of his long, eventful life. Assuredly we give him no scant measure of praise when we recognize and appreciate the frankness, the sincerity, the freedom from petty vanity involved in a man's admitting, on the verge of the grave, that he had all his life been mistaken on such a point, and that the republic—that is, the non-kingship, the responsibility of the chief magistrate—is the sole form possible in modern France" (p. 171).

We should do Hillebrand injustice by attempting to restate his analysis of Renan's philosophic genius in our meagre phraseology. His argument is twofold: the tendency of the present age is to examine and compare rather than to produce, and Renan is the spokesman of this

age by virtue of his insight and his perfect mastery of style. For Taine it is evident that Hillebrand has no strong liking. The author of the 'History of English Literature' and the 'Ancien Régime' is for him too rhetorical and too *doctrinaire*. His style, moreover, does not come up to the highest standard of French prose. The conclusion of this essay, in which Hillebrand reasserts very decidedly his own views concerning the historian's true office, will be found profitable reading.

Habitual Drunkenness, and Insane Drunkards. By J. C. Bucknill, M.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—To any one who has been charmed with the grace of style and force of expression in Dr. Bucknill's 'Mad Folk of Shakespeare,' it will be a pleasure to find that so skillful a psychologist and so broad a humanitarian has recently written upon a question so important to our whole social life as that contained in the above title. The interest which the subject has awakened in England, of late, proceeded chiefly from reports of American success—exaggerated, Dr. Bucknill thinks—in reforming the vice or curing the disease of inebriety; and four volumes of 1,749 pages, octavo, of an exhaustive but still unfinished report of a select committee of the House of Lords attests the thoroughness with which they have entered into a study of the problem. A vice or depraved taste our author considers drunkenness to be in the vast majority of cases; and he thinks Government or State asylums for its special treatment, as a disease, failures in this country and not to be advised in England, even for the few whose craving for strong drink can be fairly attributed to actual disease. As the weak went to the wall in olden times, so now, in his opinion, are the drunkards eliminated from the race as being among the unfitted to survive. If likely to be improved, he believes they get cured (or return to decent habits, as he would say) in all but exceptional cases, nearly as well at home or with family treatment. The success of the Boston institution, at least, he certainly underrates, for there has been in that place a very gratifying result with a selected class of patients; but the Massachusetts Legislature apparently agreed with him in their theory of treatment, when they gave assistance to it (as they have not done for seven years) by helping to provide a "refuge for inebriates and means for reforming them." One of the great merits of the book is its rare impartiality, in that it contains letters and opinions of others, especially of the distinguished alienist, Dr. Clouston, who are not of the same opinion with Dr. Bucknill. That one can find the prominent views of scientific and experienced men on both sides of the question in a very readable work of 103 pages, is indeed a great recommendation in these days of large books.

*. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Apponyi (Flora H.), The Libraries of California.....	(A. L. Bancroft & Co.)
Blunt (Lady Anne), Redoubt of the Euphrates.....	(Harper & Bros.) \$2 50
Boulger (D. C.), Life of Yakob Beg.....	(Wm. H. Allen & Co.)
Capes (W. W.), Age of the Antonines.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Continental Tour of Eight Days for Forty-four Shillings, swd.....	(Sampson Low & Co.)
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), Visions of the Future: Sermons.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Fry (Col. L. B.), Army Sacrifices.....	(D. Van Nostrand) 1 00
Gamekeeper at Home, 3d ed.....	(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Gladstone (W. E.), Gleanings of Past Years, 1845-76, 2 vols.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 00
Hamerton (P. G.), Life of J. M. W. Turner.....	(Roberts Bros.) 2 50
Hare (A. J. C.), Life and Letters of Baroness Bunsen.....	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)
Holland (F. M.), The Reign of the Stoics.....	(Chas. P. Somerby) 1 25
How We Saved the Old Farm, swd.....	(A. K. Loring) 2 00
Howells (W. D.), The Lady of the Arrowtooth.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 2 00
Hughes (R. W.), The Currency Question from a Southern Point of View.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Jones (L. A.), Law of Railroad and Other Corporate Securities.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 6 50
Longfellow (H. W.), Poems of Places: America; Middle States.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 00
MacDonald (G.), Sir Gibbie.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Marryat (Florence), Out of His Reckoning, swd.....	(A. K. Loring) 30
Morice (Rev. F. D.), Pindar.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Oakey (Emily S.), Dialogues and Conversations.....	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 75
Oliphant (Mrs.), Molière.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Rush (Dr. J.), Philosophy of the Human Voice, 7th ed.....	(Chas. P. Somerby) 1 50
Stevens (H. K.), Faith and Reason.....	(H. W. Rokker) 2 50
Turner (Prof. J. B.), Christ Words.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Wildrick (Mrs.), Lord Strahan: a Tale.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

Fine Arts.

THE GROWING SCHOOL OF AMERICAN WATER-COLOR ART.

THE Exhibition which closed last week has been marked by one of those impulses of attachment on the part of fashion which are the best guaranty of life for an art in this mixed world. The card with "Sold" on it was hung to one-fifth of the purchasable works, and about ten thousand dollars' worth of the catalogue prices set over to the painters' account. Important concessions had, however, to be made by the artists to secure these transfers, and probably fifteen per cent. of the price charged for the purchases was remitted. The gain to the particular art cultivated by the Society is still considerable. The bent is now taken,

and a steady penetration of water-color pictures will henceforth go on in the galleries of those who have been collecting canvases only, and, what is of more consequence, in the parlors of those who have no facilities for showing off canvases. The convenience of water-color art, in fact, is that it can be seen adequately in a room comparatively dim, and people can entertain its products without scandalizing their notions of a comfortably shaded interior.

The Exhibition's black-and-white department showed a more satisfying measure of the tendencies, ambitions, and experiments of native art than the larger and strictly water-colored collection. It embraced, indeed, plenty of sheets that could not by the most charitable extension of the term be connected with water-color at all. For while a sepia or ink sketch may pretend to be a work of color and a manipulation of water, it is hard to see how the crayons, the charcoals, the wood-cuts and etchings, and all the patient knitting-work of the cedar pencil could be passed into the assembly even as the cousins german of aquarelle. Their tie to the art was simply in the fact that they were the work of painters who in the other rooms were seen fully committed to the difficulties and ceremonies of the more full-dressed representation. In the hasty or preparatory cartoon we detect the thinker in the act of inventing. Mr. Homer showed, in simple black-lead heightened with gouache, a few of his groups of little girls in attitudes of hearty naturalness, their figures relieved by shorthand indications of the banks or bridges or trees on which they leaned; and the monochrome seemed almost as adequate, in his hand, to the feeling of the situation as the definition by color. Mr. Homer's contributions were simply his budget of summer sketches made in the interior of the State, the glimpses of a hermit living in complete solitude, and summary and penetrating as the glances of a recluse who is not of the world he contemplates. They were the direct opposites of the highly-finished and intimately comprehended negro scenes he sent to the Paris Exhibition. It is understood, indeed, that the Water-Color Society merely received from him his portfolios of art stenography, with permission to choose, and that the Society quickly found they wanted all. His colored sketches, hung through the different galleries, were the diary of a few summer days of changing weather, and recorded by a touch, with inimitable conciseness, the sultry closeness of the forest, or the free escape of a windy hill-top, or the damp pressure of rain. In the West room, his circle of little rustic girl-studies, set in the different phases of hot dewy morning scenes, rather crushed and flattened the elaborate picture by Detaille which happened to be adjacent, making the careful Frenchman look flat and earthy by the splendor and luminousness of their frank daylight. In the corridor his more eccentric expressions had play. He suggested to perfection the still drubbing of windless rain without defining any rain-drops, and he gave a ghastly effect of stormy light in an ugly and true sketch called "October." But it was only in a morsel or two of his pencil-work that this artist showed himself conspicuously the draughtsman. In his black-lead and body-color he betrayed the story of his old apprenticeship to the boxwood block, and chiselled his little girls' lips and noses more definitely and purely, more like the stamp of a Greek coin, than he has learned or cares to chisel with the sable brush.

The only life-scale picture on exhibition by Mr. Shirlaw was entrusted to the medium of black-and-white, though his little landscapes, in full suits of color, were studied about the exhibition, and were original and interesting. The drawing was a portrait, one which the artist had a peculiar interest in making attractive, and showed a piquant face momentarily overcome with the fun of looking out of an old poke bonnet. The complicated anatomy of a human dimple in the act of vanishing was given with a felicity that the mere anatomist would not quickly attain; but the mere anatomist would justly object that the conception of the face as a piece of structure was not correct from any conception that has ever been admitted of the art of drawing; that the nose was a cloud or a sponge, but not a cartilage; and that the portrait altogether revealed that happy-go-lucky facility, that letting the thing go at pretty near right, which the Munich practitioners, to their stultification, are borrowing from the more irresponsible achievements of Franz Hals. Another important contributor in uncolored design, committing his rounded ideas to aquarelle and his experimental ideas to black-and-white, was Mr. Hopkinson Smith, a gentleman who is an artist only in his lost moments, having long hung on the giddy edge of amateurship with infinite peril of falling over into art proper. His effects in charcoal showed a mastery of the long verdict of tradition as to the proper mixing and stirring of a savory picture; his calm certitude as to where he should put his dark tree would have touched Sir George Beaumont; it showed black and tell-

ing in his highly effective "River-Bank." Among his tinted works there was a series called "The Home Life of the Trees," ingeniously driving into greenroom groups the *ingénues*, or eccentrics, or *pièces nobles* of the woods; and artists looked with approval at his rapid and brilliant execution in the "Old Mill at Easthampton," a tribute to a beautiful town which has been latterly constituted the Barbizon of our New York painters.

Mr. La Farge, too, exhibited both in colors and in monochrome. In the latter his contribution was a cartoon of the composition for Trinity Church in Boston representing the midnight visit of Nicodemus. The attitudes and heads showed considerable character and considerable religious seriousness. The Christ expressed in his bearing the sum of knowledge and a graciousness in imparting it; the sitting guest showed the man of worldly importance taken in a teachable moment. Mr. La Farge's conception is neither common nor awkward; but we can hardly tell this painter how gladly we would observe with him the greater include the less, and the inventive and dramatic part of art go along with an adequate technical experience. It is true that the experimental look of all his pictures is not very different from a religious look. In his design the constant employ of what may be called the tremolo dissimulates the want of justness in many a thin and slurred note. His draperies wavering in uncertainty, his features and extremities shading off into a convenient smudge, are less disturbing to the sentiment of his works than a precision in wrong-doing borrowed from the first Italian fresco-painter. Yet, we cannot think it necessary to emotional art that a satisfactory ease and certainty in manufacturing hands and feet and draperies should be left to the soulless artists, such as Maclise and Merle. We should even espy with pensive satisfaction the figure of La Farge passing from the enormous studio to the classes of the Academy, a sheet of Ingres paper under its arm, and devoting to the mastery of Greek wrists and ankles those waste moments which are now employed in throwing off Oriental *bric-à-brac* worthy of Mohammed's heaven, and roses made of a breath and a blush—the roses that one dreams. The roses and Oriental wares have, indeed, been selling rapidly. Mr. La Farge can no longer use his noble boast that he has never sold a picture from an exhibition. The yellow ticket has found out the corners of his small and modest frames, and the artist can congratulate himself on being almost alone in having sold his pictures at full prices without concessions, and on having had a mercantile success with a group of works in New York commensurate with the satisfactory disposal of his studio-contents lately in the city of Boston.

Porous Plasters as applied to fine art have not, we believe, been signalled heretofore in any criticisms on artistic methods. They are not to be found, to our knowledge, in the shops of artists' material; but they will not keep out of them much longer. A use has just been found in æsthetics for these soothing but utilitarian sheets. A manufacturer of heavy

papers, meant to be medicated, selected some of his leaves and applied Winsor and Newton washes to their surface, first fortifying them with the proper amount of size. The success was striking, and has set the most cultivated artists seeking with avidity the reverse side of blisters, and the sheets destined primarily for hospital employment. Mr. Colman and Mr. Swain Gifford are eagerly experimenting at present on these surfaces. The texture is strong and beautiful, regularly accented and indented with the impression of the sieve; it is white in specimens made of linen alone, and warm in others where fibres of rope are introduced; it is beautifully firm and stout, with tendencies to wrinkle and imitate old Holland that are appreciated by artists; and in fine the indication is that the poor man will soon have to go in chase of the artist, who will have got his plaster. The only painter sufficiently advanced with his tests to contribute to the exhibition pictures on this medium was Mr. Charles Parsons. His beach-views and straggling sea-side cedars were beautifully indicated, and the inspiration of his material seemed to lend him an uncommon breadth and felicity of style. The rich, marrowy-looking surface suggested more of artistic profundity than it really carried, and the new paper was seen to be a noble material for effects of a large and generalized kind.

The success of the year, however, as we before observed, was certainly with the Fortuny disciples, who were in sufficient number, and behaved strangely enough to keep all eyes fixed on them. The outbreak of Fortunism has been an old tale in Philadelphia, whose Academy exhibitions have for years been colored with the fine extravagances of Messrs. Blum and Brennan, and the devoted studies of the dead Spaniard supplied by Mr. Ferris and his son. Brennan and Blum have now removed to this city, and their contributions are regarded as a new sensation. Certainly Mr. Blum's "Flight of Storks" was a decoration and a study above the common rank, and Mr. Brennan conveyed at a stroke the full sentiment of opulent luxury in his "Affecting the Japanese," besides supplying the only good drawing in the catalogue. These artists, young and dictatorial, are fully in the ranks of the "Intransigents." If they could they would abolish form, turn perspective topsy-turvy, and spiritualize Art to the spotless trinity of the prism. Messrs. Currier and Muhrmann are partially paraphrased in German: they both proceed from Fortuny, but they have passed over Bavaria; Mr. Currier sent from thence those vibrating chords of color which we were asked to accept as landscapes, and which were certainly the principal sensation of the exhibition. Mr. Muhrmann, who has abandoned Munich for this city, contributed among many other important works the bust-picture of a "Sixteenth Century Gentleman," which, without much extravagance in style, was a notable union of the luminous sketch and the realistically modelled finished work. In their whole exhibit, we should observe, these four contributors disported themselves in radicalisms and technicalities which made Whistler seem rather sane and commonplace.

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